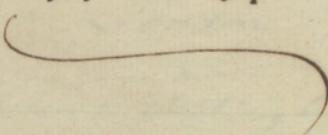


D^r Hunter's
Anatomical Lectures

1775 & 1776



Anatomical & Chirurgical
Lectures
Read by D^r William Hunter
& M^r William Crichton,
(on Dissected Bodies)
at their Theatre in
windmill Street, Hay Market
London

Taken in Writing by
William Tempest Mercer
A Pupil attending the said Lectures, in
1775 & 1776

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The first one of these Lecture is essentially in abbreviated
form the same as that which Hunter "left corrected for the
Press" to be published in 1784 the year in which the late
course was given.

Two Introductory lectures / delivered by /
Dr William Hunter / to his last class of / Anatomical
Society / at his / Theatre in Windmills-Street

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Introduction

Anatomy is the art of examining Human bodies by Dissection. The advantages we receive from it are very great, the principal of which is that it teaches us a rational method of curing diseases. The word Anatomy is derived from the Greek, and literally speaking signifies cutting, but in its most general acceptation is less confined signifying any thing done with a view to discover the structure & organization of Animals, comprehend-
ing in this sense, Maceration, Injection, Corrosion, Distillation, Boiling, Preservation &c &c. and is extended to every part of the body. Anatomy is divided into Human, & Comparative. The first respects only the Human Spec-
ies, the latter includes all other Animals whatever. The first, or Human
anatomy is what we profess to teach, intending only to introduce occasion-
ally, just so much of the second as may be necessary to illustrate, & more
readily, explain the first. The structure of the Body is in many parts, so
extremely delicate & fine, as to remain yet undiscovered, in others it is more
apparent, and comes under our inspection. From the Dissection of Birds
the ancients gained all the anatomical knowledge they ever possessed. Of
no wonder, therefore that we find their descriptions of the Human frame so
erroneous and incorrect, as are greatly inferior to those of the moderns, who
have such frequent opportunities of having recourse to Human bodies to
solve their difficulties. This as well as most of the Arts have undergone
many revolutions, at one time it has been held in the highest estimation &
cultivated by men of eminence, at another it has been despised, and neglected,
as to its origin we are still in the dark. Like others perhaps it had no precise
beginning, the common accidents of life awakening sooner than an intent
we turned to the consideration of the subject, so that it is very probable,
the first man might have attained some knowledge of the External Form,
and even

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2.

and even a small degree of the Internal. This rude knowledge gradually improving from man's having observed the Alterations in Bodies by all kinds of Violence, Funeral Ceremonies, & such like at last grew into a System. It must have received great assistance from the Ceremonies used at Sacrifices, he whose business was to perform those Rites, could not but find something to engage the Attention, as to excite Reflections. The Priest, the Augur, but above all the Butcher must have acquired some Idea of the Animal Machine, their Occupations leading them often to the inspection of Bodies. The finding of Brutes similar in many respects to mankind, & they being easily procured, induced men more frequently to examine into this Faculty by which man has a gradual insight into the Animal Economy, Anatomy became a Branch of Learning. The Greeks are the first People we have any authentic of, who studied it as an Art; it is probable that they first derived their knowledge from the Eastern Nations, particularly the Ethiopians & Egyptians, from it being so closely connected with Astronomy in it, forasmuch as the Egyptians & other Eastern Nations from the situation of their Country, the change of the Sky, the quadrate part of the year, & from their custom of sleeping on the House top with no other canopy than the Heavens, could not fail of making many Observations on the Motions of the Heavenly bodies, & from the great influence those Motions were supposed to have on the Human Body, it is highly probable that they studied Anatomy likewise; however that be, Thales, surnamed the Wise, is the first Anatomist we have any account of, & this was 580 years before Christ, no Proofs was made in the first till the time of Hippocrates, who was Contempary with Socrates, Xenophon, & Plato 400 years before the Christian Era. He divided Anatomy & Medicine from the other Arts, & made it a distinct Study. He is the first Author we have any account of, who wrote on Anatomy, in

He informs

The Introduction.

He informs us, he had never an opportunity of inspecting the Human body, & but once saw an human skeleton. The first Dissection we have on Record was made by Democedes of Abdera, who had such Subject a Slave. From Hippocrates the Art gradually increased till the time of Galen, who lived in the second Century (that is 800 years after Hippocrates) during this Interval several great Men appeared who contributed much to its advancement, particularly Aristotle, who lived about one hundred Years after Hippocrates. He raised Physiologyn in general to a very high pitch, but was a greater Physiologist than Philosopher. And also Herophilius and Aristotle (about 250 years before Christ) of Alexandria, where the Greeks went to finish their Education. Here most probably the first Human dissections were made. Galen applied himself diligently to Anatomy, studied in Asia Minor, & then went into Africa. He composed many Books, which for the time he lived in, are certainly a very great prof. romance, but his Dissections were chiefly confined to Quadrupeds, & operations of dissecting human subjects from the superstition of the times being very rare. For a long Series of Years after Galen the Art declined, & so indeed did Arts in general, decaying as the Empire of Rome decayed. Galen had acquired so great a Character as an Anatomist, that his Successors, probably desirous of going beyond so great a man, contended themselves with explaining his Doctrines. Then in the fifth Century learning of every kind received a Severe Shock from the Invasion of the Barbarous Goths, & Vandals, who overran all the Western Empire, & destroyed what ever trace of the Arts they could find, which obliged Men of Learning & others to fly to Greece to avoid their Fury. But in the middle of the seventh Century it received almost a total overthrow from the Saracens who spread their Devastations over the East, & appearing the fiercest & cruelly —

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Cruelty and Contempt of Letters among other places which suffered
from this Violence was Alexandria, which has been the seat of Painting
for 200 years, where the finest Library then in the World was burnt down less
than 100 years after the appearance of Mahomet, they had conquered all Asia
Minor, & Africa, & about the year 617 came to the Eastern part of Europe; —
here they laid Siege to Constantinople, the only place where the Arts survived,
but happily were repelled. Under the Government of the Caliphs, Physic
& Anatomy were on a very indifferent footing, but Abdallah, who lived
about the year 749 protested & caused them to Court particularly,
the Arabic, who had learnt this Art of the Greeks, & from the Arabs the
western part of Europe regained all their knowledge, Spain being conquered
as previously by them. — The Arts, which had been almost extinguished
by the Invasions of the Goths & Saracens, in the latter part of the Thirteenth
Century began to dawn in Europe, particularly in Italy, where Guido in the
year 1313 published & explained what was left of Galen, which publication
was by a Public Decree pronounced to be the Standard of Medicine, and was
read in all the Schools throughout Italy for 200 years. — In the fifteenth
Century the descendants of the Saracens, the Turks took Constantinople, and
committed the same outrages their Predecessors had done. The Greeks fled
from their Barbarity to Italy, which was at this time disposed to receive them
a desire of Literature having arisen among them, thus it came about, that
the Italians were the first, that made advances to restore Learning, soon after
which the Useful Art of Painting was invented. — The Portuguese found out
the Passage to the Cape of Good Hope, and in the fifteenth Century Columbus
discovered America, so that many circumstances arose nearly at the same
time to excite Men to cultivate the Arts: And indeed the Invenitum of ancient
knowledge, with which Italy every where abounded, must have contributed in a
great degree,

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great degree to excite this flame: one reason why the Jews & Mahomedans made no progress was, that Anatomy was their Superstitions Doctrine of Cleanliness & Uncleanliness, therefore they were averse to the handling of dead bodies. About this time (in the 15th Century) the famous Leonardo de Vinci, who was the first man that made any anatomical Drawings, published a Lecture with anatomical Plates, & Explanations, the Figures were drawn with red Chalk touched with a Pen & the Explanations are written with the left hand backwards, so that it is necessary to make use of a looking-glass to read them. His Book is now preserved in his Majestys Library, & Testimonies are given by Authors, which render its authenticity indubitable. Vesalius in his Lives of the Painters, says that Leonardo composed for his own amusement Drawings of the Anatomy of an Horse; & from the Excellency of his figures, and delineations we may conclude him to have been an excellent Anatomist. Antonius de Decius read Lectures at Padua, & was the first anatomical Lecturer we know of, he expounded Galen, & taught Physick. Morgagni & others taught Anatomy, & made some few Discoveries, but till the time of Vesalius, they did little more than copy Galen. In 1540 Vesalius appeared, he was at Brugge in 1544 from Brugge he went to Paris, & was under Silvius, here he remained 8 years, & was uncommonly studious, often stealing Sembes & sometimes whole Bodies from the Gallows: At the Age of 28 he published a system of Anatomy illustrated with many noble figures, in which he disengaged from the common Errors adopted from Galen by Silvius. He was afterward sent to Cremona & Andronice, where he now & then had opportunities of dissecting a human Subject, afterwards he returned to Milan, where he taught Anatomy. He was publicly invited to Padua by the Magistrates to teach Anatomy & Physick. He taught also at Bologna, & Pisa by turns, making one Course to last about three Weeks. He was well supplied with bodies by the publick Order from the Executions.

He went

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He went afterward to the Court of Charles the Fifth, but not being so well received by the Emperor, as he thought he merited, he withdrew himself in a Pet burnt all his papers. His dissenting from Galen in many things raised him many enemies, particularly Harvey, Columbus, Fallopius, Vesalius, & others, with these he held great disputes, but in the course of these controversies falling into the same fault of which he had accused Galen, giving description of parts of the Human body from those of Brutes, he came into disrepute, for in Spain he had no opportunities of dissecting human Subjects. He lost his life as he was making a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. From his time the arts have been improving. In the year 1600 Harvey, as was customary then, went to study Anatomy in Italy. His brother Fabricius ab Aquapendente having discovered the valves in the Veins, published his doctrine of the Veins carrying the Blood from the Heart to the Liver. This was sufficient for Harvey's enemies to work upon, & from experience he found out the Circulation of the Blood in 1616, but did not publish it till 1628. Harvey's Doctrine at first met with considerable opposition from the Followers of Galen's System. The next thing that naturally presented itself for enquiry was the passage of the Intestine into the Blood. In 1626 Agellius discovered the Spleen, and in 1651 Puget dissecting a Dog to observe the Spleen, discovered the Thoracic duct & the Hepaticum Chylifer. In 1652 Riedelius, a Swede, and Bartholinus discovered the sympathetic. When these things were known, it was natural enough to enquire whether Nature observed the same Economy in the Fetus as in the Adult. On this subject Harvey published some valuable books, and about this time some Dutch Anatomists, viz. Swammerdam, Van Horne, Steno, & De Graaf made a great noise in their writings, in which they endeavoured to prove that Viviparous Animals are produced from Eggs as well as Oviparous Birds & Mollusques.

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Malpighies by the help of magnifying Glasses discovered parts, which before had escaped the minutest inspection. He was succeeded by Lewentzow, who discovered the globules of the blood, & carried his researches so far, as to affirm that he saw that the communication of the arteries of the veins, and that there were an infinite number of animalcula in the male semen. Towards the latter end of the last Century, Injections, & other anatomical Preparations were made under Swammerdam & Stuyck in Holland; and Cawdry, Andreae, in England. Dr Nicholls was the first that siced the pores of corosin, by which the vascular structure of many parts is made evident by first injecting with wax. The Figures & Models made of wax are in general very inaccurate, but those made of Plaster & lead from the parts themselves are very good & serviceable. Chiseldon, Albinus, and others have given several exact figures of the different parts of the Human body, which have helped to improve the Art. Among the discoveries of the present age Dr Hunter mentions those which he has been fortunate enough to make himself, and which he thinks the greatest since the discovery of the circulation of the Blood. 1^o. That the lymphatic & absorbing Vessels are the same as the lacteals, which with the Receptaculum Chyli & Thoracic Duct form one system for absorption. That is the grain & little as the internal membrane of the womb composes the external one of the Scutellum, and with them is thrown off from the uterus every time a Woman brings forth a Child, or vice: carries being reproduced, and called Decidua, and that therefore the Placenta is partly made of an excrecence, or effluence from the uterus itself. 2^o. John Hunter discovered the lacteals in brids. In Newton those in Fishes. A moment's reflection will prove, that the great Studies have been made towards perfection, yet the Subject is far from being exhausted, and were our

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Senses more acute, we should find that what we now know, compared with what is still unknown, would bear but a small proportion. Anatomy and Anatomy present us with the most striking view of the Omnipotent and wise wisdom of the Creator. It is indispensably necessary for a man who practices Surgery or Physic to be well acquainted with this study, it teaches him when to cut with Safety and Dispatch, and enables him to form a just prognosis of Diseases. In short Anatomy is the Basis of Surgery, it informs the Head, guides the Hand, and familiarizes the Heart with a kind of necessary inhumanity in the use of cutting Instruments. The Anatomist, who can calmly consider the Structure of the Human Body without having the noblest Thoughts arising in his mind of the Divine Author of there is such a man I say, he will certainly have his Soul, labouring under a dead Palsey, as the great Author could look on the Sun at mid-day without seeing its light from a defect in his Optic Nerves.

The Structure of the Human Body in General

Lecture 2

Having taken a short View of the Physiognomy of Anatomy, we shall now proceed to give some Account of the different Methods of teaching it, but must first make some Observations on the Structure of the Human body in general. When we take a View of the great Number of different parts, of which the body is composed, their dependance on each other, it appears to be such a complex Machine, that instead of being surprised at the prodigious Number of Diseases to which it is liable, it is really admirable, that every part performs its Office with such Exactness & regularity. A moment's Reflection will convince us, that the Animal Fabric, the Complexion is only, necessarily so. Let us suppose it granted to a Man to model a Being like himself, but if possible with less imperfections, how would he go about the work? First, he has an Intellectual Mind given him to place in this Body, which must be provided with a proper Substance, the Brain we will say is for this, where she may hold her Empire. As this Mind is to hold an Intercourse with the Body, to be a faithful Monitor to it, & to direct its Motions, it must have Roots for these purposes, of course it must have Nerves to give a power of Motion, to enable it to pursue whatever Objects are pleasing, & to avoid what are displeasing. Muscles & Tendons must be provided, different bones are wanting to support the Fabric, & not one continued bone, which would make the body stiff & rigid. Then Ligaments must be bind, & keep the bones in their places, and that the End of these may be the more free & easy upon each other, they must be furnished with smooth Cartilages & sinews, to fill up the intermediate spaces, & add the Cellular Membrane, as a case or covering to the Whole. The skin, which is also

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The Structure of the Human Body in General
is also the Organ of feelings. As this body is to live in Society, & had an
intercourse with the beings around it, it must have the organs of Speech, &
the Organs of speech & separate the Organs of hearing. The organs of Sight
are absolutely necessary on a thousand occasions. Thus far then nothing
appears superfluous. But the Machine is not yet compleat. It is the
nature of Matter to act on Matter, & if the body was not continually excited
it would be soon worn out; therefore that fine Particular fluid the Blood
must be provided to repair the Machines, to wash away the old Materials
which are become useless, & to carry them to the several Excretaries of the
body, viz the Visceral Glands thro which the noxious, or useless particles are
strained from the Blood, & carried out of the body. That the Blood may
perform these offices it is necessary it should circulate thro every even the
most minute part of the body, and thus we see we perceive the Arteries;
veins rising from the Heart, the Arterial, & Vernal systems. The Blood itself
from performing these offices, would soon be expended were it not continually
renewed. This must be done by Food. The Earth abounds with animal
& Vegetable substances proper for these purposes, & Man is provided with
most useful instruments, the hands, to procure subsistence. Food in its
cruel State is very different from Blood into which it is to be changed, which
makes the Teeth, Stomach, & in short all the Organs Subservient to Digestion
necessary, as also the sense of Smelling, Tasting, that we may be able to
choose proper food. The finer, & more subtle parts of this prepared Mass
being what is proper for the formation of Blood, is absorbed by the Spleen
in the Intestines, and conveyed into the Blood Vessels, while the grosser
and earthly part is carried thro the Intestinal Canal out of the Body.
Now this Body like all limited ones, has its duration, & is nourishing grows,
arises

The Structure of the Human Body in General.

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answ. at its perfection, decay & falls to Decay. That the Species should be preserved, it is necessary that it should have the power of multiplying its kind. Thus we see there are several different Systems in the body, the Vascular System for Nutrition, the Nerves for Innervation, the Ligaments for Union, the Bones for Strength, the Muscles & Tendons for Motion, the Organs of digestion for supplying the Nutriment, & the Organs of Generation for the propagation of the Species: After taking this View of the constituent parts of the Human body, there still remains the Organs of Respiration, which we cannot account for a Priori: that they are essentially necessary to life we well know, and we should lament our ignorance that we cannot perceive their mode of acting as readily as of some other Organs, yet when we reflect upon the wonderful contrivances exhibited in the human frame, the infinite wisdom shewn in the putting together the several parts of it, each part having a power lodged in it to a certain degree of restoring itself when injured, to wit, a wound heals of itself, a broken bone unites & forms a Callus, dead parts excrete from the living, when there is a redundancy of Blood an haemorrhage ensues, & when a proper quantity is evacuated the Vessels close again by their own Elasticity; together with the wonderful mystery of Generation, we shall readily acknowledge our Frame, to be the Work of an Infinite Wise and Good Being.

There are two ways of teaching Anatomy, Analytically & Synthetically: The first, or Analytic begins the Resolution or the taking to pieces the several parts, beginning with those which form the principal parts, and ending with the smaller. The second or Synthetic is just the reverse, beginning with the more simple, and ending with the more compound. The first method is supposed to be the best adapted to the purpose of investigating

The Structure of the Human Body in General

investigations, and making discoveries. The latter has been professed in teaching Anatomy, and many Treatises have been composed on this Plan, but as sometimes the one, and sometimes the other is best suited to explain the different parts, during the course of the lectures both will be made use of. This Branch of knowledge has been divided into two parts; the first properly called Anatomy, relates only to the Trusses, and Structure of the Body. The second called Physiology, and Animal Economy comprehends the internal operations, and functions depending on the Body. The Body is made up of solid and fluid parts, is therefore divided into Solids & Fluids, & these again subdivided. The Solids are divided into two Classes, first the harder parts, or the Bones, called Osteology; secondly the softer, or flexible parts called Sarcology. Osteology includes the Bones only, but Sarcology is divided into many other parts. First, Angiology, or Doctrine of the Vessels; Secondly Adology, or Doctrine of the Glands; Thirdly Neurology, or Doctrine of the Nerves. Fourthly, Myology, or Doctrine of the Muscles. Fifthly, Splanchnology, or Doctrine of the viscera. Beside the Organs of the Senses, Generation and Infegement there still remain three species of Solids, which cannot be properly placed in the Classes above mentioned, viz. the Hair, Nails, and Cartilages; the Cartilages are commonly confounded with the Bones, as being applied close to them. The Hair & Nails with the Infegments for the same reason. The Ancients divided the Body into Semilar, and dissimilat parts; of the first class were the Bones, Muscles, Blood Vessels, & such like; the dissimilat parts were such as a Finger, an Eye &c. This method the Moderns have rejected. Another Absolute Division of the Body was into Sanguineous, and Spermatic parts. Muscles & other parts which were

gland

The Structure of the Human Body in General

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of a red colour were called Sanguinous; Tendons of other parts, which were not of a red colour but pale, were called Spermatine. The Fluids may be divided into three kinds: first the crude Fluids or the Chyle, and what is excreted from the Surface of the body; secondly, the general and perfect Fluid the Blood; Thirdly, the local, or secreted, i.e. all excretions whatever, particular ones to particular parts of the body, some useful and retained, others useless and excreted. It has been a Dispute whether Fluids are a proper object for anatomical Enquiry, as they appear to be equally so with the Solids, they are both Objects of our Senses, and necessary to be understood. Describing and Demonstrating every part with Care will certainly teach Students more solid knowledge, than perplexing them with numerous distinctions. Fresh Subjects are very necessary to any one Studying Anatomy, and so also are Preparations. Preparations serve two purposes, they enable us to keep for a long time uncommon and curious things, as the Gizzard Stones. For example, and by these we can preserve from putrefaction the fine minute parts of the body; there are two Methods used for the Making of Preparations, the Wet, and the Dry. Both these kinds have their Advantages and disadvantages, being changed in some measure from their natural State. The Wet lose their colour, and from the Astuteness of the Ligament in which they are contained their form in some degree is altered. The Dry change their Appearance greatly. The Muscles for example, from being fluid and pliable, become slack, and rigid. Bones indeed retain their natural form. So much for the anatomical or first part, into which the Study of Anatomy is divided. As to Physiology, it is difficult to say what Part is best to follow.

The Human

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The Structure of the Human Body in General

The Human body may be compared to a Circle, each part supposing something to precede it. Thus for example, if we speak of the Brain, the Nerves are understood; and if we speak of the Brain and Nerves, the Heart, and arteries are supposed as contributing to their action, and vice versa. The best Method seems to be, first to explain the Organs, and afterwards their functions. In proceeding according to that Plan, the Structure of the Parts, and their Human Phenomena (as Data) will be first explained. Secondly, the Hypotheses formed thereon, and lastly, of D'Herister, shall give you my own opinion. Lectures on Subjects intelligible in Prints are but of little Service. — — —

The Blood

Lecture 3

15

We purpose to follow the Plan of Dr. Nicholls, and therefore give a general Idea of the Constituent and Similar parts of the Body, beginning with the Blood. The Blood is that Fluid, which is contained in the Heart, Arteries, & Veins of all living Animals, and is continually circulating throughout the body. Its Colour in the Human body is red; but in some Animals it is of a different Colour. It has been called the Life of the Animal, the Magazine of Nourishment &c. as upon its distribution and motion the Functions of Life depend, and upon its Effusion or Stagnation Death ensues. Dr. Harvey in his publication de Generatione Animalium, has two curious & very interesting Chapters on this Fluid. He made experiments upon it, & observed it to differ in different States and Stages of Life, & thought that it was in a true literal Sense, the real life of the Animal, the Animæ or immaterial power residing in it: that it was the Perpetuum Mobile which is observed in the Incubated Egg, and called it Primævælo, & Ultimum Mæsus. That the Sunbeam by its irritation produced Motion in the Heart, and thus was the first in Life, and last in Death: and Mr. John Hunter has proved that the Blood while living is capable of forming Blood-vessels, which will unite with those already formed. We are not however to consider what it is but what its appearances are. The Colour of the Blood is always red in a healthy state, which is heightened by the Contact of Air. So the taste it is a little Sallish, & appears to be of a Gummy Nature. In Specific Gravity it is a little heavier than Water, in proportion of 1040, or 1050 to 1000, according to Savini; Matter being a little heavier in a strong Subject, than in a weak one. When we look at it as it is running from an Artery or Vein, it appears to be an homogeneous fluid, but it is

The Blood

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but it is a complicated one, as indeed we might imagine it to be a
Pisces from the different kind of substances used in our Food, and the
different kind of secretions separated from it, as the Saliva, Milk &c &c
we shall examine it three ways, first by the Microscope, secondly by
watching it when let out of the body, & observing the Phenomena it presents
to View, and thirdly by a Chemical Analysis. On viewing the Blood thru
a Microscope there appears to be a number of little round Bodies or Globules
swimming in a Colourless fluid. The Proportion these bear to the Whole
Mass is not to be determined, it is probable it differs considerably in differ-
ent people, and different Ages of Life. There appears to be a much
greater quantity of them in People in high Health, & robust Constitution,
than in those labouring under Lethargies Diseases. In common they appear
to make about an eighth part of the Whole Mass of Blood. It is supposed that
3000 of them lined in a row like Beads would reach about an Inch in length.
Dr Hunter says, that at first View they appeared to him round, in another
oval, in another flat, & in another round again, from which he concludes, they
are round, flat, like a piece of Money, and from these several appearan-
ces as they turn round. Many who have examined the Red Globules,
have observed in them a nucleus, or dark Spot in their Middle; others suppose
that the Globule is a Bag containing a fluid, others that they are solid
bodies, and some that it is thin. We do not certainly know what they are.
The Red Colour of the Globules is the result of a great number of them
lined together, every single one being of a yellowish colour, so a piece of Horn
of a dark red Colour, for instance, if cut into thin Shavings appears red.
The Red Globules are the heaviest part of the Blood, when out of, and ever-
stagnated in the body: They are by some means or other decomposed, for when
they have been let out of the body a considerable length of time, the Globules
cannot

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cannot be seen distinctly, and in extravasations they are broken down, Absorb'd and carried off. The Blood Globules were first discovered by Malpighi in 1665, and after him Swenckhock, & others enlarged considerably on this discovery; Swenckhock took up an Idea, that a red Globule was composed of six small ones unit'd together, & thinks that the falling of a Globule from these six Constituents is the Blood becoming Serum; & further he supposes one of these six small Globules was composed of six Sanguineous ones, &c. Did this Opinion and however Dr. Master has in the Medical Essays illustrated this doctrine by six Balls of Wax, which he says will be very close, on each other, and become a Sphere with a little pressure. But the Moderns have totally rejected this Doctrine. Secondly, Blood drawn fresh from a Vein, and not at all presently becomes a Jellie, a little time after it separates into two parts, a Cate called the Serum, or Coagulum, and the Coagulum or Whey, if it be not disturbed, the watery part, or Serum is without any red colour, & is of a yellowish hue, & therefore all the red Globules are contained in the Coagulum. The Blood may then be considered as composed of three parts, principally, first of red Globules, - secondly of Coagulum, & thirdly of Serum - of the first we have already spoken, we shall now consider the Coagulum or Coagamentum. If Blood recently drawn be constantly stirred with a Stick, until it is cold, a considerable quantity of rough fibrous Substance will adhere to the stick of a red Colour; this is the Coagulum united to the Blood Globules, - If this Substance be well washed in Water, the Blood Globules will separate from it, & ting the water with their colour, what remains in the Basin will contain no fluid. Hence we may suppose the Coagulum to be somewhat similar to Ghee, like Ghee when warm it is fluid, and it jellies like Ghee when cold. This coagulating part of the blood possesses a propensity to coagulate when stagnate, that is separates from the other principles when Blood is extravasated in any part of the

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part of the body, and in fine requires great firmness. This Coagulum will not dissolve in boiling water, nor in Spirit of Wine. Indeed if left long in the water, it would putrefy like all other Animal Substances. When Blood has stagnated sometime in the Uterus or Vagina it becomes very compact, & of a fleshy consistence, and when discharged is mistaken by Nurses for pieces of Flesh, and is called a Mol. or false Conception. The superior Surface of the Cake is a Bleeding Parting, becoming highly red depends on the Air only, which is proved by Mr John Hunter in the following Diagram. He filled a Bottle with Blood & corked it close so as to exclude all Air, where the Blood remained as black as at first, but upon the Air being suffered to come into contact with any part of it, that part becomes of a very florid Colour. The Coagulum contracts & becomes smaller & smaller the longer it is kept, wasting intime to a very considerable Draught. The Coagulum has been called by several different names. Some have called it Glisten. Malpighi calls it the Fibrous part of the Blood. It is not however composed of fibres or Fibres like the Muscles, but forms itself into one common Acute like the white of an Egg hardened by Boiling, as we find it in Liver & Spleen. In Anæmias, where the Circulation is languid, this first begins to coagulate at the sides of the Vessels, which are farthest from the common road of Circulation, after which another Lamina is formed & so on. In discharging an Anæmia we find this laminated appearance. This coagulating matter is generally called coagulable Lymph, but as this is not always coagulated, we rather chose to call it coagulating Lymph. It is the coagulating Lymph, which makes that whitish appearance in what is called Buff, Pleuritic or inflamed Blood. After Bleeding the Cake is sometimes found of a red colour at the top, sometimes Buffy. The reason of the Blood having a Buff on its Surface, is because at this time, it is from some unknown cause.

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cause rendered more fluid than it is in common, so that the red particles or Globules from their gravity subsiding leave the Coagulating lymph, which settling by itself appears whitish at the Surface, & when this is the case it is observed the Blood is not only more fluid, but longer before it settles, and the Buff may be seen as it gradually forms its self. The Surface of the Blood first appears of a purplish or bluish hue, & this gradually becomes buffy. This appearance of Buff has been generally looked upon as a Criterion of Inflammation, but it is not much to be depended on, for Blood drawn from a pregnant Woman in perfect health will often have this appearance, also after Child birth, so that we ought to depend but little on that circumstance in judging of their disease. The Polypus in the large Vessels near the Heart is often mentioned by Authors, & supposed to be a disease and to cause Death is only this a lymph coagulated after Death in consequence of the Motion of the Blood having ceased. The Polypus is common, found in the Vessels near the heart, more frequently near the Pulmonary artery than the Aorta. It having been found in People who had complained of difficulty of breathing & other Symptoms, it was supposed to have formed during the life of the Patient, & occasioned those Symptoms, and very often that it was the cause of Death. Dr Hunter was once of this opinion, but what led him first to the discovery of its having been formed after Death, was his observing that in the Pulmonary artery, the matter of the three large vessels were always seated on the Polypus, from whence he concluded that at the time of its formation, the Vessel must have been full of Blood, of course it could not exist there during Life. And he says, that the inferior part of a Polypus (which is in general towards the Back, a dead body being laid Supine) is always seated in consequence of the red Globules being determined to that part by their gravity, so that the Superior part has generally a buffy appearance, while the Blood is in Motion it never coagulates in the Vessels, but when stopped it does, & if we examine the end of an Artery that has been tied in amputation

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Amputation some time before, we shall find that this which had coagulated and plugged up the End of the Artery near the Ligature, has become a fleshy substance, & obstructed the Canal for some distance. Whatever occasions the coagulation of the Blood in the body occasions the coagulation of this Sanguifer; for if we open an Artery in a Gangrenous part, we shall find it stuffed up with Coagulated Sanguifer, so far as it is included in the Gangrene. The best part of the blood to be considered is the serum, this continues to separate from the Coagamentum for a considerable time after it has been drawn from the body; even when putrefaction begins, it is not all separated from the Coagamentum. Its Colour is different in different States of the body. In general however it is transparent & of a yellowish, or what is called an Amber Colour; sometimes we find it bluish, sometimes greenish, and at other times perfectly white or opaque. De Mervil once saw some of a Baker's in Casy Street, which entirely resembled Milk in Colour. It is not known upon what this white Colour depends, it is however a general received Opinion, that if a Person is bled soon after eating, a Distinction is observed in the blood, which is supposed to be the Travayle, not yet converted into blood; but this could not be the cause in the Case just mentioned, for the meat must have been as large as the whole body, to furnish a sufficient quantity of Chyle to colour the whole of the serum. The greatest part of the serum is watery, it contains sometimes a larger, & sometimes a smaller proportion of it, by drinking plentifully, it is increased, & by copious excretions it is diminished. At a heat of 150 Degrees of Fahrenheit's Thermometer, Coagulation becomes white, opaque, Spirit of Wine, Alum, & Concentrated Acids produce the same Effects on Chymists observe that it contains Salts, unabsorbed especially sea salt that is taken into the body with food, essential Oils not changed into blood, & many excrementitious parts not strained from it. Philosophers find nothing permanent in this world, every thing in the Animal, Vegetable, & Mineral Kingdom appears to be continually changing. In Animals, & Vegetables

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Vegetables this is clearly seen, and is apparent from Fermentation & Putrefaction. Man converts the Animal & Vegetable Substances he uses for food into himself, but dying he himself becomes putrid, and affords nourishment to the Vegetable Kingdom. This may also be said of Fossils, particularly Metals, which Dr Hunter says Dr Lindley proved to him from Specimens of lead. There are 13 ways to determine whether a Substance belongs to the Animal Kingdom, or not; first by burning it. All Animal Substances give a peculiar smell on being burnt, thus the smell arising from the burning of Skin, Flesh, Feathers, Horn, Hair &c is exactly the same. Secondly by exposing it to the action of mineral Acid & by Carbolic Alkali; which destroys all Animal Substances; Thirdly by wetting and keeping it in a warm place, as if it is an Animal Substance it will go on to Putrefaction. We come now to the third method of examining the Blood, that by a Chemical Analysis, or Chemically examining the Blood appears to be composed, in common with other Animal Substances, first, of water, secondly gelly, or Mucilage soluble in Water tho' differing from other Mucilages, in that it is dissolved with greater difficulty in warm than in cold Water; Thirdly Volatile Alkali; fourthly Glycerine or Fat, unlike other fat in that it produces no volatile Salt in Distillation; fifthly Essential oil, but in exceeding small quantity; sixthly, a latent Acid (which is formed in greater quantities in Ants than other Animals) seventhly, Earth which is a native principle. It is absorbent, & may be dissolved by Nitric Acid, it is called refractory Earth because it dont vitrify, therefore Crucibles are made of burnt bones. The Quantity of this Earth is different in different parts of the body, The Blood & Flesh contain about a sixteenth part, a smaller part in the Hair & Nails, & a third or fourth part in the bones. Lastly, fixed or fixable Air which indeed is formed in every part of the body, but does not shew itself till putrefaction lets it loose. This is evident from putrefied bodies swimming in Water. But whether it is mixed with the constituent

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constituent parts is not determined, and it still remains a doubt whether the Blood contains Aerophaeric Air, or not; we are now pretty certain that the Body does not contain the least Calcareous Earth. When the Blood is distilled, seven eights of it appear to be Water, first a volatile alkaline liquor comes out, or spirit of Hartshorn, next a salt which concretes in the neck of the Coffe, afterwards the liquor grows oily, first of a yellow colour, afterwards black, of this remains better Carb, & black Liquor montium, this being burnt, and afterwards washed gives a small quantity of Ammoniacal Salt, and Sea salt, an earth remains with a small quantity of Iron, which Chymists have found to be an Element Universal principle. In this Lecture all minutiae are avoided, & only such properties and Phenomena of the Blood taken notice of as every Surgeon & Physiologist ought to be acquainted with. By Aerophaeric Earths we mean, that when they are applied to the Tongue they absorb the moisture, and leave a roughness on it; the Earth of Thells is absorbent and calcareous, but Animal Earth is only calcareous.

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Having explained the nature of the Blood, we come now to consider what it is contained in, and how distributed to every the minutest part of the Body; — The Blood-Vessels perform this Office, or to use a common expression, the Circulatory system. — The Organs serving this purpose are the Heart, Arteries, & Veins, of these the Heart may be considered as the Center: the Arteries carry the Blood from it to all parts of the body, and the Veins bring it back to it again. Previous to describing the Arteries & Veins, we shall just observe that the Heart is a composition of muscular bags, that these bags are very strong & full in number, two of them called ventricles, from whence the Arteries arise, and two called auricles with which the Veins communicate. An Artery is a hollow flexible Tube beginning at the Heart which has a pulsing motion, & seems to carry the Blood from the Heart to all parts of the body for its nourishment; as it recedes from the Heart it divides into immen-
sible branches, so extensively distributed thro' every part of the body, that a wound cannot be made with so small an Instrument as to the point of a Pin, without injuring some of them. Even the coats of the Veins are supplied with numerous arteries. Since some of the Ancients were of opinion that the Arteries formed the whole Animal Body. — The word Artery in Greek, from whence it is derived, signifies an air-carrier, & appears to have been first used for the Wind Pipe. — The Ancients called all the Vessels indiscrimi-
nately by the name of Veins, till it was found that one kind of them had power of contraction & dilatation: Supposing this kind to have the property of drawing or sucking in Air, they named it Arteries; — There are only two Principal Arteries in the body arising from the two ventricles of the Heart, viz., the Aorta; or that arising from the left ventricle, and the Pulmonary Artery, or that arising

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that arises from the right Ventricle. Thisorta is distributed into an infinite number of ramifications, thro' all the several parts of the body; the other distributes the blood thro' the lungs. The Pulmonary Artery was before the discovery of the circulation of the Blood called a Vein, & being so called an artery, in some respects, they called it Vena arteriosa, or Arterial Vein. The branches of the Aorta take names from the parts to which they are distributed; &c. Those of the Pulmonary Artery having no particular names. The arteries are ramifying tubes of a Conic Figure perfectly round, because always full of Blood when free from pressure. Arteries send off branches, like Branches from a Tree: the part they are sent off from is called the Bifurcation of the artery. When an artery divides into two Branches, the Diameter of the Two added together is greater than that of the Trunk they proceeded from; hence the sum of all the branches taken together are much larger than the trunk which produced them. It is an almost general rule, that the branches of arteries go off at acute, yet many of them go off at right, as some at obtuse angles, & and as an instance of the last, the Epigastric artery is brought, but this is a mistake, for the Epigastric artery at first goes off at a right angle & then turns afterward, & makes an obtuse one. The nearer the Heart a Branch goes off, the greater is the angle. In the small branches there are all sorts of angles & directions, particularly in the anastomosing branches; & in the Extremities they run almost parallel. Every artery, which is large enough to carry red blood, is called by the name of Sanguinary or Sanguiferous, and those which are too small to admit the red globules, but admit the serum, are called Serous or Seriporous Arteries, & these are liable to be so affected as to admit red blood into them, which is called an Eructio Sanguinis. This may be seen in an inflammation of the eye, where the vessels of the

Turba

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Tunica Coniunctiva, which naturally carry only Serum, are filled with red Blood.
 As Lewenhook supposed *visc* Lymphatici Globules, formed a Serum Globule,
 & in *visc* Serum ones a red Globule, so he also imagined there were three orders
 to carry them. But as Lewenhook's Doctrine of the Globules is doubted, the
 term Lymphatic is Altered is laid aside; and indeed from the late discoveries we
 find that the Lymphatic Vessels are not continuations of the Arteries, but do
 of themselves form a System: And as we are not able to see any smaller Arteries
visc than the Serum, and not then till they are made evident by an Error Socii;
 the Moderns retain only the two orders of Sanguiferous and Serum. In Both
 arteries, when they begin from the Heart, have Valves, whose Office is to prevent
 the Blood return upon the Heart, when the Arteries contract. In general
 they are three in Number, tho' sometimes there are four, & sometimes but two,
 but they all answer the same End, as the Varieties we find in different bodies
 is generally in those Cases, where the Laws are well answered as well.
 The Branches of the Aorta in general take the straightest road to the parts
 they are distributed to, & as near as possible in the Center of the parts they
 pass thro', supposing the body to be in its natural position (in the Limbs
 very close to the Bones). The most natural State of the body is when
 it is without Action, as in health; it is then neither sitting nor standing.
 For example, suppose a man drunk, or w^rl^rg, he does not lay with
 his Limbs straight, & at length on his back, but in the easiest posture,
 on his side with his Legs & Arms half bent, his Body and Head bending
 forwards, so as to bring all his Limbs into a State between Contraction &
 Relaxation. In this state of the Body, the Arteries go to the several parts,
 by the shortest way always on the hollow side. Accordingly we find the
 artery

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artery, when it leaves the Abdomen situated in the Groin, which is the hollow part when the Hip is bent, it then passes straight down to the ham & soon before to behind, which is likewise the hollow part when the Knee is bent, & so on in the straightest course possible to the Foot; the same may be said of the Artery in the Axilla passing into the bend of the arm &c. The Advantages attending the Situation of the Arteries is manifest, as they are hardly exposed to injury better than they could possibly have been in any other position; for instance, had the Femoral Artery passed down the back of the thigh, it would have been injured by pressure, likewise if it passed over the knee, it would have been hurt on a thousand occasions.

The Arteries run sometimes in a Spherical winding form, which D'Anville supposed was to prevent them being stretched in parts which are liable to be distended, as in the Chest & Utens. But it is certain that they do not become straighter when the Utens is pregnant, for they become more convoluted. The Arteries continuing to branch on, at last form a ret. work or Anastomosis, that is, their mouths open into one another, like the Veins on the leaves of Trees. The largest Anastomosis is on the Brain. The Doctors have always understood an Anastomosis in this sense. The Ancients had a different meaning for the Word, they supposed the extremities of the Nervous Arteries opened on the different surfaces of the body, as on the Stomach &c. Hence Galen speaking of an Hemorrhage accounts for it either from a rupture of the Veins, or from a striking thro' its Coats, or percolation, or lastly from an Anastomosis, in which he supposes, that the small Arteries, which open on the Surface of a Cavity, are so far dilated as to permit the red blood to pass thro' them. The General Use of anastomosis

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Anastomosis is, that the blood may be more equally distributed. When the Artery is tied in the Operation for the Aneurism, the Circulation thro' the Limb is afterwards kept up by means of the Anastomosis, which otherwise must have perished. The Coats of an Artery are white with a yellowish cast, very much resembling that Ligament in the neck of a Calf, called white leather. There are two Opinions held with respect to the Contraction of an Artery, some supposing it to depend on Elasticity, others that it is a muscular Action. An Artery is a pretty firm Substance, and Anatomists have observed it to be of a different texture, & have divided it into three Coats. The Internal Coat is an exceeding thin, smooth, polished Membrane, its fibres are so very fine, as not to be discernible, it has very little strength. The Second Coat is composed of Circular fibres, very visible to the naked eye, exerting great force when pulled in a longitudinal direction, but easily ruptured when pulled sideways, these fibres as they run outward change their situation, and running in every direction from the third Coat. Some Anatomists describe a fourth Coat, which they call the Cellular Coat, but this cannot be properly reckoned a Coat, it is only a covering which it has in common with other parts of the body from the Cellular Membrane. The Use of the three Coats is very apparent: Had not the first been so fine, & smooth the blood would have soaked this. The second, third give strength to the Vessels. These Coats living on, are ministered by Vessels called the Vasa Vasorum, and from the nervous influence upon the Arteries, it is supposed they have nerves too. This influence is very great, for example let some Idea arise in the mind, & instantly the whole Face is covered with a Blush, which affection is an Inundation of the Blood in the Vessels of the Skin of the Face.

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say, but Dr Hunter believes if they have nerves, they are but few; as the Arteries appear to be very insensible. The Blood by the muscular contraction of the Heart is forced into the Arteries, fills them throughout, and distends their coats. This swelling of the Arteries is called Diastole. The Arteries react upon the blood either by a muscular power, or from elasticity, and pushes it forwards, while in this action, the Arteries are said to be in their contraction or Systole. It was a common opinion with the old Physiologists, that the Arteries had those motions of themselves, and by this means they drew the blood from the Heart; for said they, if the motion of the Blood is owing to the action of the Heart, propelling it thro' the Arteries, why do those Arteries, which are at the greatest distance, pulsate at the same time, with those that are the nearest to it? To give a satisfactory answer to this question, we need only say, that the Arteries do not all pulsate at the same time, of which any Person may be convinced by putting a finger to the Carotid Artery and another to the Artery at the Ankle. Although the size of an Artery in its pulsation seems to be increased very considerably, yet we find that it is not much so. This was made very plain to Mr John Hunter in the Carotid Artery of a man laid bare, for the heart was strong, & his pulse beat very forcibly on the finger, the dilatation of the Artery was so very inconsiderable as to be hardly perceptible, so that the difference of the feel between a contracted & distended Artery, seems to be rather a lightness than an encrave; so in proportion as the Arteries are filled in an highly injected preparation, they appear more supponerous. The Systole depends on the coats of the Arteries reacting

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reacting on the blood, either as muscles, or elastic substances. Physiologists are not agreed what ^{that} power is, they call it the Power from the Irritation of Distension. Some have said, that the Action of the Arteries contributes nothing towards the Circulation; but Dr Hunter is of opinion, that they contribute to it greatly, & independent of their Elasticity, which power he thinks may be called muscular, for endeavouring to inject blood into the Muscular Veins by the muscular Arteries in a dead Subject, he met with great difficulty, but in a live animal it readily passed down from the artery to the vein without any further force than filling the artery with a Squeezing, and then stopping the vein with the fingers it passed of itself; whether this power is muscular or not cannot be determined. We see that muscular fibres contract, but cannot tell why they do so. The most minute Arteries have little or no sensible motion, because their capacity taken together, is much greater than the Trunk they spring from: for the same reason the Velocity of the blood is greater in the large Arteries, & grows weaker & weaker in the small ones, till its motion becomes imperceptible. Whatever blood the Trunk, & large branches of the Arteries receive, they receive from the contraction of the Heart, which not throwing out constantly, but at Intervals, produces in those arteries a thumping, or jerk, when I dislend them, but as the blood moves on towards the small branches, it is propelled by two powers, the Heart, & the Action of the Arteries alternately, these two powers then will force the blood thro' the small branches into the veins in a constant stream, like the wind issuing out from a double pair of Bellows. This is the reason why the Veins, which are only continuations of the Arteries have no sensible motion.

The arteries

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The arteries in the bodies are commonly found empty, which is a Phano-
menon that has not yet been accounted for. With the circulation of the blood
the knowledge of the Pulse is connected. The Pulse is the criterion by which
we judge of the action of the Heart i.e. In this the Medicos have the Advan-
tage of the Ancients, that it is a very distinguishing mark of the state the
body is in, and we may draw great help from it, making a just prognostic
of a disease; Yet we must always remember that the Pulse varies very consid-
erably in different People, and that a thousand different things will affect
the Pulse independent of disease, particularly the professions of the Bourgeois.

In general the Pulse beats about 70 or 80 times in a minute, yet we
sometimes find a Pulse always beating in health 100 times, or more,
and Dr. Althoe in common health had it beat 150 in a minute for many
years. In young Children it is quicker than in Adults, and in every
person it is quicker in the Evening, than in the Morning. A Pulse is
said to be large or small, hard or soft, but a perfect knowledge of them
can be only acquired by Habit. —

Diseases of the Arteries

Lecture 5th

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The Diseases of the Arteries are next to be considered. There are two diseases to which the arteries are very subject, an Aneurism, or Dilatation of their Coats, of which we shall speak hereafter; & their Ossification, or changing into bone. This last is a disease to which persons of an advanced age are most liable; and is found generally in the Extremities, particularly the lower ones, tho' there is no artery, but what is liable to it; even the Aorta is frequently ossified. The Ossification always begins on the inside of the artery, gradually shooting outward. Dr Hunter is not certain whether the blood touches the bone; not, but believes it does not, as he thinks, he has found the fine & smooth Coat on the inner surface meet the blood. It has been a common opinion, that the Ossification happened in consequence of a disposition in the Solids to grow harder as age advances; & for say they, the Solids of a young Subject are softer than those of an old one; Old People have many parts bone, which in Children are soft; that in like manner the Arteries become bone. But this Ossification is certainly very different from the Ossification of other, and is owing to some peculiarity in the Constitution, or else we should find Ossifications always more, or less frequent, in proportion as People are old or young; & pretty certainly in Old Age, which however is by no means the case, for they are sometimes found in Subjects under 40 years of age, & often in very old Subjects there is not the least appearance of Ossification. Dr Hunter dissected a Man, who died at the age of 105, & could not find the least appearance of any Ossifications of the Extremities, especially of the Face & Ext. being very frequent in Old Age, & which have been supposed to be owing to this cause, is accounted for by saying that the Circulation

Diseases of the Arteries

Circulation growing languid from the arteries being incapable of forcing the blood forward, at length stops, & the part for want of nourishment dies. This, tho' it may be the cause sometimes, is far from being so always, & as most commonly in these mortifications there is no ossification to be found. There was a man in St. George's Hospital also who had an ossification of the Carpal Artery, so that when the Finger was first applied to it no pulsation could be distinguished: upon pressing it with the finger firmly the bony coats were felt to crush like an Egg Shell: It is probable in Amputations, where the Surgeon has been baffled in his attempt to restrain the flow of blood, that this had been the cause: when we meet with any difficulty, then it will be right to examine the End of the Artery, & proceed accordingly. It is necessary to observe when we speak of the body, in general, we call those the extreme parts, which are farthest from the Trunk, as the Hands & Feet, but in speaking of an Artery, we call that an extreme part of the body, where the artery terminates; in this sense every part is an extreme part, even the Heart itself.

The Veins

A Vein is a carrying tube, in general very similar to an Artery, but differing in this particular, that they begin to arise in the extreme parts of the body, and end at the Heart, therefore in an anatomical sense they are very similar, but in a Physiological one they are different, as we say the arteries begin at the Heart, & terminate at the Extremities. There are six principal Veins which terminate in the Heart, two which answer to the Aorta, as bring back the blood which it carries out, namely the Vena Cava Superior & Inferior, which end at the right auricle,

The Veins

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Arteries, and the four Pulmonary Veins that bring the Blood back from the Lungs, ending in the left Atrium. The Arteries open into the Veins, and thus the communication between the Arteries & Veins is kept open. In general the Arteries & Veins run together, but they may be distinguished from each other, by the Veins being larger and their coats thinner than those of the Arteries. When the Veins are empty, or cut through, they become flat. They branch as the Arteries do, and anastomose in the same manner, with this difference however, that the Anastomosis is more common in the large Veins, particularly in those of the Limbs. Their division, as that of the Arteries, is into Sanguinary, or those which carry red blood, and Serous to those which carry only serum. There were what was called Symphatic Veins, but since the discovery of the Sypnathetic System, this term has been rejected. Harvey discovered the circulation at a time, when the minute parts of the body were not well understood. He & the Anatomists before him could see that the Arteries & Veins branched out smaller & smaller, but they had no Idea of the infinite number of fine branches extending every where, they conceived therefore that there was an intermediate Spongy or Cellular flesh placed between the extremities of the Arteries, and beginnings of the Veins, forming a kind of reticulated Labyrinth between them, that the Arteries throb the blood into that Spongy flesh, & that the Veins took it up again. Malpighius, Lewinboch, & other projectors made it out clearly, that the Extremity of an artery terminated immediately in the beginning of a vein, that the Veins are a continuation of the Arteries is made evident by injection, for we can fill the Veins of the hand by the Artery, & if we examine it, we shall find the Ducts filled, where contained in a Spongy substance, Anthony where in 2 Pdolls. It is an easy matter to inject the Ducts by tying a pipe into the radial Artery, and pouring into that pipe a quantity of Liquor sanguis.

The Veins

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Quick-silver, so as to make a Column of it, to suspend the hand with the Fingers downwards, & the quick-silver by its gravity will gradually get into the Vessels, & make them apparent thro' the Skin, and when they are sufficiently filled, draw it from running out; while the Vessels are filling, the quick-silver will be seen just as high in the Veins as in the Arteries, & if the hand be inclined to any side, it will make its way immediately to the most depending part, which fully convinces the communication between the Arteries & Veins to be a very ready One. What seems to prove this farther is a Preparation of the Scoundrel of a Puppy; the Arteries are filled with white, & the Veins with blue Ware, and when the Skin and Artery meet, the blue is vein-mixing in the same Vessel with the white. In favour of their being a spongy flesh between the Arteries & Veins the Corpora Lymphatica Pilia are produced as an instance; but even here it is not evident that the Artery throws its blood into a spongy substance, & that the Vein absolutely carries it off. There was also supposed to be a beginning of Veins from the Surface of divers parts of the body which were believed to receive & carry into the blood particles from without. As a proof of this it was said that Mercury rubbed on the Skin was absorbed by these Veins & produced a Salivation; but it is now made very evident that the Lymphaticas do this Office. In general the Veins are situated with the Arteries, running along with them, wherever they go, particularly in the Stomach, Liver, Spleen, & Intestines, but in some parts they differ much, especially in the Arms & Legs. In these, divide the Veins which run with the Arteries, there are Superficial Ones having no arteries accompanying them. Thus the Veins on the back part of the hand run to the inside of the Fingers, and form two great Trunks called Basilic & Cephalic Veins, which have no corresponding Arteries. There are also like Veins, on the Legs, & Thighs.

Thigh, Neck, & Head &c. D'Herister says he has often thought of
 these superficial veins going alone, & why they do go in this manner diffi-
 cult from others, and supposed it to be for this reason. That muscular motion
 requires an increase of circulation of blood thro' those parts immediately in-
 action, and therefore these veins are provided to carry off this greater
 quantity of blood, least the deeper seated veins should be pressed upon
 by the action of the muscles, and a check to be given to the circulation
 thro' them. A vein is elastic, & appears to be more so than an artery,
 and its coats being thinner, it appears to be of a much closer texture. It
 wants the circular fibres, which make the second coat of an artery, so that
 it cannot be divided into different coats. It is nourished by the Vasa
 Vasorum, like an artery, & probably is furnished with nerves, tho' they
 cannot be distinguished. Within the veins there are valves made
 of two semilunar pillars, which suffer the blood to pass towards the
 heart, but prevent its return. Where these valves are placed, they cause a
 swelling of the external coat of the vein, like the joint in a Reed or cane.
 Most of the large veins have no valves. The veins of the lungs, Liver,
 Stomach, Intestines, & Matrige have none. They are found principal-
 ly in the limbs: the neck has some, but in the arms many are
 placed within two inches of each other. The use of the valves has not
 as yet been satisfactorily accounted for by Physiologists. Some have
 supposed that they serve to counteract the weight of blood, when the
 body is in an erect posture, but had this been the view of the ^{old} Doctors
 informing them, we may ask, why are they placed so close in the veins
 of the arms, & why is the Vena Cava Superior which supports a column
 of blood two or three feet high, entirely destitute of them? It is plain
 in this case the Phenomenon does not agree with the theory. D'Herister
 conjectures

conjectures, that as muscular motion requires a greater quantity of blood and as the pressure of muscles in action ^{causes} greatly to increase the motion of blood one way, that is, towards the Heart, and as the extremities are the numbers chiefly used in all Exercise, that they are placed principally in the Veins of the Arms & Legs therefore, not in the other parts of the Body. — The Motion of the Blood thro' the Veins is continually accelerated as it approaches the Heart, because it has less space to move in, for the very same reason that it moves quicker in the large than in the small arteries. — The Veins have naturally propulsive Motion, but sometimes a single Vein is found with a Dilatation, and sometimes there is such a general change wrought in the body, that many or most of them have been found to sublate, as Dr Hunter has twice or thrice observed. — In Bleeding it is often observed that the blood is emitted with a jerking Motion, but this happens only in consequence of an artery lying contiguous to the Vein.

Phlebotomy

We are now to consider the Effects of Phlebotomy, what change it will produce in the Circulation when a Vein is opened the Circulation will be a little quickened in that part, & but a little. — It may be necessary here to explain the former Doctrine of Detivation and Revulsion, of which so many Books have been written. — Suppose then a Woman with an Obstruction of the Catamenia, we bleed at the Ankle, that a great quantity of blood may flow to the lower parts of the body, this is making a Detivation. — Again supposing a man labouring under a Thunsey, or an inflammation of the Brain, we again bleed in the Feet, not to make a

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make a Deivation to the lower Extremities, because they have too little Blood, but with respect to the Brain, or its Covering which have too much, this is making a REVELATION. — On All Ages taking away blood has been approved of for stopping Hamorrhages, & it has oftentimes a very good Effect. But Dr. Hunter thinks this remedy is often too much used, especially in Uterine Hamorrhages, and thinks the Method often followed by the Ancients to be better namely, to make Ligatures on different parts of the body, and by that means to give a Check to the Circulation. — Dr. Hunter says, that the Tendency in the Constitution of our bodies to stop Hamorrhages when they become prejudicial to Health is exceeding great, far beyond what is generally imagined; that he has been with Hundreds of Women, who have had very profuse Hamorrhages in consequence of miscarriages, and have been to all appear- rance dying with cold Sweats, difficult Respiration &c yet never knew that one die, unless they were far Advanced in Pregnancy, for when the woman becomes weak thro' loss of blood, the action of the Heart grows weaker, & weaker, till she faints, and the Hamorrhage stops of itself. Great mischief may be done at this time by giving Cordials, for tho' at the time they are taken, they give a momentary & pleasant, yet by stimul- rating the Heart, they often renew the flooding. It is amazing what quantity of blood some Women lose, and yet do well. — Now we have described the arteries and Veins, we shall just describe a few particularities in both. All the Veins are elastic, which is a great advant- age, as they can by this means adapt themselves to their contents, which often prevents our being destroy'd by great Hamorrhages; Secondly, they enlarge

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They enlarge in proportion as the Bulk of the parts increase, in which they are situated, as in the Breasts of Women, but particularly in the Testes, & their Coat grow thicker at the same time, which is a circumstance, that has not yet been accounted for. Again in an Artery opened, and which has discharged its blood into a Vein, one would at first imagine, that as the Blood was drawn off, the Artery would grow smaller, but it is just the reverse, for the Circulation being accelerated thro' the Artery, increases in bulk in proportion as the Circulation increases. This is evident in the Varicose Anæmia. — ^{Partly} all the Vessels have a tendency to contract, independant of their Elasticity or muscular Power, & when the Blood cannot circulate freely, the Arteries become smaller & smaller, till at length they are constricted into Solid Cords.

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The Absorbing System.

Lecture 6th

Having now considered the circulation of the Blood throughout the body, we shall next consider its appendage, the Absorbing System.

As the Blood serves to repair the daily waste made in the Constitution, it follows that there must be some provision made for renewing it, for which purpose we eat the Aliment we daily take for Food, & as the nutritious particles of the food proper for making blood is taken up by very small canals rising from the Surface of the Stomach, & Intestines every where, and carried into the Blood Vessels; these are so very small as to be imperceptible to the Eye, which was necessary that nothing might get into the blood, but what was small enough to circulate thro' the minutest Vessels. These Vessels, which absorb the Alimentary juices, and carry them into the blood, are called Lactiferous, or Particular Vessels. The Lactiferous with another class of Absorbing Vessels form a System different from the arteries & veins, called the Lymphatic System. But before we enter upon it we will by way of Introd. first consider the opinion concerning exhaling Arteries, and Absorbing Veins. It has been supposed by Anatomists, that besides the arteries & veins already described which anastomose with each other, there was another series, which arose from these as branches, that some of them small vessels (or exhalant arteries) opened on the skin, thro' which the matter of Secretion & perspiration was supposed to pass, while others of the same kind were supposed to throw out a fine liquor on all the external Surface of the body, to keep them supple & prevent the parts from adhering; and as a proof of this they said that if a body was opened soon after Death, the several cavities & surfaces were always found in a moist

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a Dr. in't State, supposing then this fluid pou'd out a question arises, what becomes of it? The answer is, there were inhaling or absorbing Veins, beginning not from the extreme branches of the Arteries, as the other Veins do, but from the Surfaces of the body, which take up this fluid & carry it into the Veins. (The Absorption by the Skin is granted by all, for the method of Salivating by Mercurial Lingualts is a sufficient proof of it.) In health what is exhaled & absorbed balances each other; if a greater quantity of fluid should be thrown out, or a less quantity absorbed than usual, it brings on Leucophlegmatic Disease. If any Cavity suffers in particular, it occasions a Disease of that part, as we see is the case in the Ascites, Hydrocephalus, Pectoris, Hydrocele &c.) — It appears doubtfull whether there are any Exhaling Arteries, or no; but summo'g probable that there are none.

The fluids that have been supposed to carry, we shall for the future call Intestinal Fluid. Whether the intestinal fluid is carried to the Surface of the body by exhaling Arteries, or transudes the Coats of the Arteries cannot be determined absolutely. This however may be said, that the arguments made use of do not by any means prove the Exhalation. They say in support of it that if you inject the Arteries with a subtle fluid, it gets into the Cavities of the body, and then ask, if there are not Exhaling Arteries how does the Blood get into the Cavities? Now nothing is more plain to a working Anatomist than that Coats of the Veins allow of Transudation. The Blood in the dead body transudes everything except the Cuticle. There is one experiment of true, that will undoubtedly prove the Exhalation on the Skin. Bodinac, Glatter, & others have said that upon injecting quicksilver into an Artery, a dus of fine globules rises on the Skin. The truth of this experiment Dr. Huxley's very much doubts, as he never has been able to make any injection pass the Cuticle, he is of opinion that it is by transudation.

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transudation, for he thinks if the Exhaling Arteries & Inhalating Veins were a series of vessels branching off from the largest Veins & Arteries, we might reasonably expect by injecting those, to fill those also, which we never find to be the case, tho' he supposes that the matter of sweat, perspiration is thrown off by Exhalation. By the parts surrounding the Gall Bladder being tinged, it would appear that the Bile itself would transude, but Dr. Hunter says, that this transudation does not take place till after death, which he is convinced of from having opened several ~~the~~ animals & others just dead in order to examine those parts. It is not a matter of much consequence which way it is performed, & therefore we leave it a question whether the texture of the coats of the minute vessels is not so close, but that this Intestinal fluid can pass thro', or whether it is thrown on the several surfaces from the mouths of small arteries opening thereon. The next question is, what becomes of this Intestinal fluid? Anatomists have been of opinion that it was taken up by Absorbing or Inhalating Veins opening upon the parts as before mentioned. The experiment given to prove this opinion is hardly to be believed. It is said that the Abdomen of a live Dog was opened, & Warm Water thrown into the Stomach & Intestines, that in a little time all the Veins about grew very turgid with the Water and remained so till all the Water was absorbed, & carried off; but Dr. Hunter says that in experiments of this kind at which he has been present, he never once observed, that the Veins were made more turgid by the Water. There are many arguments for the Sypnathetic System that prove the contrary of this opinion. Dr. Hunter says that this fluid is not taken up by the inhalating Veins, but by the lymphatic vessels. All the red globules of Blood are kept within the Vascular System during Life, but after Death they transude, and about all parts of the body in proportion to the time it has been dead. Transudation may perhaps happen in consequence,

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consequence of the Vessels having lost their Tension, but more probably from the blood Globules being broken down & dissolved. If an Artery is taken from an Animal lately dead, and filled with Water, tied close at each end, and laid in an horizontal position, yet the Water will transude, and it will be quite empty in a little time. The Lymphatic System has been known but a little more than an hundred Years. Anatomists before that time supposed, that the digestions part of the food was absorbed by the mesenteric Veins, & carried by them to the Liver to be changed into Blood. This Office however is since found to be performed by very small Vessels called Lacteals. In most parts of the body there are exceeding fine Vessels with very fine coats, & a great number of Valves. The fluid they carry having little or no Colour is called Lymph, and the Vessels themselves Lymphatics. As the fluid they contain can pass only one way on account of the Valves, and that is from the branches towards the trunk, they truly be called Veins. In some parts of the body these Vessels run solitary without giving off any branches, in other parts they form wonderful pleats of Vessels. The outer Coat of the Liver seems entirely formed of them. Another difference between these Vessels, and the ordinary Veins is, that an Artery or Vein becomes smaller & smaller in proportion as they branch more & more from their Trunk, but a branch of a Lymphatic often grows much larger than the Trunk it proceeded from. Another peculiarity is that the Lymphatics in their course, all naturally run into a Lymphatic Gland, entering at one side & coming out at the other. The Lymphatic Glands are small, long, & round bodies commonly called Herns, & were by the old Anatomists called Conglobate Glands, when they were first discovered seeing that they were in general seated near large blood Vessels, as in the arm pits, and

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Groins, they were supposed to be placed there to support these Vessels, as Nick who first discovered these glands, says they are composed of a Cellular Substance, that a Lymphatic Vessel on entering one of the glands divided into many branches, which carried a fluid into the Cellular or spongy Substance, that from this spongy Substance it was absorbed by those going out on the contrary side, in the same manner as Harvey supposed the Blood to pass from the Arteries to the Veins. This opinion of Nick's was held as a common Doctrine, Mr John Hunter has made several Experiments to determine whether this Substance is Cellular or Vascular, but has not been able to determine the point. Dr Richelle, and the present Professor Morris of Edinburgh, say they are wholly Vascular, & so does Pinckey when the Lymphatic quits the gland, the branches are united into one common Trunk, which as it proceeds unites with others, till they form one large Vessel near the spine called the Epidacrum Chyle, & Ductus Thoracicus, which at last enters a Vein, so that whatever is carried by the Lymphatics goes into the blood. This System therefore is plainly an appendage to the Blood Vessels. The branches of the common Trunk of the Lymphatic Vessels have two different names, in all parts of the body except the Intestines, they are called Lymphatic Vessels. Some of them are deep seated following the course of the Arteries, others are very superficially, as there is something peculiar in their distribution to every particular part. Those Vessels which arise from the inner Surface of the Stomach & Intestines may be properly called Absorbent Lymphatic Vessels of those parts. But when they were first found, from their being full of a milky fluid they were called the Lacteals or Chyle Vessels, which Name they still retain. They run from the Intestines to the mesenteric glands, and from thence to the loins where they unite with the Lymphatics from other parts, and form one common Trunk; as far as we can judge a fistula is there.

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is like a Lymphatic in every circumstance, going into, coming out of Lymphatic Glands, in their passage to the common Drift. — we shall next consider the Use of this System. It was a common opinion that the Lymphatics were a continuation of Arteries, filled by them. Now as it was known long ago that the Sæcals arose by imperceptible Sifters from the Intestines, & carried the nutritious part of the food or Chyle to the Blood Vessels, it is surprising that the Lymphatics should be thought to be continuations of Arteries. A strong proof that the Lymphatics are not continuations of Arteries is, that all Lymphatics have Valves, which the Arteries have not, and many other facts serve to confirm, that they are a system of themselves, an absorbing System from all parts of the body where Absorption takes place; and that there are no Absorbing Vessels is a fact confirmed by many Observations. As the Lymphatics absorb from all the surfaces of the body whatever is capable of being taken in by them, as they pass the Glands, if any fluid of a poisonous or irritating quality is of parts small enough to be taken into them, it often stops at the glands & inflames them: thus Venereal poison occasions a Bubo in the Groin if the infection was received by the Genitals, & afterwards is carried into the whole habit. Dr Hunter says, he received the first hint of the Lymphatics being absorbing Vessels from a Friend asking him his opinion of Mr Fatio's Chirurgical Publication (about the year 1714-5) to which he answered, that he had not read it, his Friend then mentioned Mr Fatio's advising a Surgeon in Venereal Cases to cut out a Bubo from the Groin, for that he said, he would by that means eradicate the poison, which he supposed was conveyed in some way or other from the Genitals to the Inguinal gland, & detained there. This Dr says struck him immediately so that it came into his imagination, that the Lymphatic Vessels were the conveyors

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Conveyors of the poison. — Taking up the subject upon this supposition, he was by numerous Experiments & Observations soon convinced that he was right in his conjecture. Daily experience confirms the truth of this doctrine. Mercury applied to the Skin is Absorbed, from thence carried into the Circulation & produces a Salivation. — Garlic also may be absorbed from the Skin, & carried into the Vascular System, as is evident from the Blisters excreted from the blood by the Sudorifics along with the Urine, & giving that the own particular Smell. After Venereal Infection, a Bubo arises in the grain, in consequence of the poison being retained in its passage thro' the Gland; if the Bubo suppurates, the poison is evacuated with the Contents of the Bubo, & no other Symptom for the most part arises, but if the poison pass thro' without occasioning a Bubo, or if the Bubo dispeles, then other Symptoms make their appearance. — We can observe the very Lymphatic by which the poison is conveyed away from from Venereal affection. Two kinds of Chordes may arise, the first of which is the most common happens in consequence of the Cavernous body of the Utricle being inflamed, so that the Penis when erected is drawn downwards in a Curve, the second is when the Penis seems to be bound round with a tight Cord, which is owing to a Lymphatic Vessel being inflamed that runs in that direction. — If the infection be received by the finger, it is first carried to the glands in the Axilla, if by the mouth to the glands in the Throat. — Dr. Mackauley after dissecting a dead body infected with the Venereal Disease, observed Hunter, his hand; there was a red streak, extending from a small wound in his finger along the fore arm, which disappeared at the bend of the joint, & appeared again above the joint running into the Axilla where a Bubo was formed. — Near Cancerous Ulcers these inflamed Lymphatics are often seen. — When a Woman's Milk is going off, there is

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She is frequently vexed with a Rigor, & febrile Symptoms come on in consequence of the absorption of bad Health into the Constitution, and it is no uncommon thing for her to have a Bubo in the Thigh, any Ulcer, furnishing a sharp Ulcer may occasion an inflammation of a Lymphatic Gland, to which the sympathies of that part where the Ulcer is situated, lead, indeed in such Cases these Glands are always more or less diseased & when from any Cause, These Glands are obstructed, the inguinal ones for instance, the lymph will accumulate in them, and give the appearance of a Bubo, & the limb below will become Edematous, and when from dislocation the Gland bursts, the discharge will be lymph, not matter, In such Cases the Doctor is to do nothing, he says that by degrees some other Lymphatic will dilate sufficiently to carry off all the lymph, and the part will heal of itself, when the limb is much swelled, dry Frictions may be recommended to promote this End. Besides explaining a considerable part of the Animal Economy, the use of this System will be found in explaining a variety of appearances, in Diseases, especially in the Scrofulula, which is a disease in which the Lymphatic Glands are first, & principally affected. The common Opinion that the Scrofulula is caused by a bad humor in the body, and that that humor is undoubtly derived from Parents to Children is certainly without foundation. Dr Hunter says, he does not believe a Word of constitutional bad humours, & he thinks that the Blood is not at all affected in this disease, but that it is owing to a fault in the Lymphatic vessels from their offices being too bilious, and abounding in improper things; & is therefore a faulty Absorption that is the cause of this disease, and we commonly find the Scrofulula attack Children, and people of bad Habits, and fair Complexions. If this doctrine be true, we perhaps at length hit on some method of treating this disease more successfully than hitherto has been

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has been done. This will not consist in purging or carrying bad humours out of the constitution, but by correcting the faculty Absorption. The Remedies that have been found most effectual in these Diseases serve to confirm this Doctrine; they are the Bark, and Sea-bathing, the first braces the body, and in some measure stops Absorption, the Other appears to act much in the same manner, while the Shock from the frequent Plunges in the sea may probably produce some change in the System. Mr. Lucas O'Brien very lately informed Dr. Hunter that it is the Opinion in Ireland, that the Croupilla is a Vermicular Disease, and that in many Scrophulous Cases very small Worms had been found in the Divaricating Lymphatic Glands. Dr. Hunter says, if this be true it serves to confirm his Doctrine of the Role of the Sympathies. For he supposes that their Ova must be absorbed from the surface of the body by these vessels, and lodged in the Conglobated Lymphatic Glands. Having now gone the round of Circulation and Absorption, we now proceed to another Appendage to the Circulatory System, to wit the various Glands.

The Glandular System.

THE LECTURE.

As there is daily a greater quantity of Chyle carried into the blood, than suffices for the nourishment of the body, it was necessary that the redundant chyle should be thrown out together with such other particles of the blood, as were become unnecessary & superfluous, for this purpose serve the various glands, and also to prepare some particular fluids necessary for the animal economy. It is difficult to define what a gland is. We mean by it, a circumscribed mass of flesh, made principally of Blood Vessels, whose office is to secrete something from the blood. The Latins called them Glandula, and Glandae, which signify kernels. The true structure of a gland is not known. All anatomists till Malpighi's time had but a vague notion of these parts; they supposed, as we find from Galen, that they were a composition of spongy flesh, some of them made to support Blood Vessels, and some to strain off fluids from the blood; this spongy texture they called Parenchyma, and supposed that the strained fluid was strained thro' it in the same manner as water thro' sand, or a dipping stone. Nothing more was known till Malpighi took up the subject. He called on his researcher with great care by the help of Injections & Microscopes, and used Ink instead of wax for his injections. He was of opinion, that the glands were principally composed of Blood Vessels, but that their Parenchyma was formed of small vessels or Bladders. Some of the glands he called simple glands, of this kind he says, those little bags are, which are situated near the root of the Tongue, & are surrounded with many small lings of flesh. The Follicles itself is only a reservoir of a slimy fluid secreted by the surrounding flesh, which is pumped out in Digestion to facilitate the passage of the food. The Throat is lined with the same kind of glands. According to Malpighi's doctrine, the lins & other glands were only

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were only compounded of these simple ones. In his Idea the little white & yellow bags resembling the grains in soft Soap, which are often observed on the surface of discarded Skins, were only these glands obstructed & enlarged. Until last winter Dr Hunter says, he thought his doctrine well supported. Ruyech, who was very anxious in conjecture, was once of the same opinion that the glands were follicular, & that from each Follicle there went out an excretory Duct, which uniting with other Ducts composed one common one, as the Porii Biliares of the Liver. But afterwards, he improved his injections, & then he thought that the substance of the Liver, and all the other glands, was composed entirely of blood-vessels branching differently in different glands, and so forming a different kind of Parenchyma. In the most minute projections of the Liver which Dr Hunter has been able to make, there were always vessels to be seen not filled with the projection: notwithstanding this seems to favour the opinion of Follicles, he is of opinion that the glands are entirely capsular. All anatomists allowed the appearance of capillaries, or bags in the Liver, but even these are proved to be nothing but veins. Mr Cudlshanks last winter by injecting the emingent artery not only filled the vein, but the secretory vessels also, so that the injection fairly passed into the bladder, which proves beyond a doubt that Ruyech was in the right. Ruyech was of opinion that every gland was composed of an artery, a vein, & an excretory Duct, that the artery terminated partly in the vein, & partly in the excretory Duct, that the blood carried by the branches of the artery was received by the branches of the vein, and a liquor received from it by the secretory vessels, or branches of the excretory Duct, so that the gland contained the two kinds of fluid, the bloody & the liquor received from the blood: besides these vessels in the glands there must be nerves, as the mind has great influence over them.

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over them, which can only be by means of nerves, thus any one holding a delicious morsel is said to have his mouth water, and the great quantity of pale crude urine, Hysteric Women make at the time of the fit, weeping &c. are sufficient proofs. Dr. Nichols describes two sorts of Glands, the first he calls Glands ^{proper} from Structure, the second he calls Glands *ex officio*, as a branch of an artery opening upon any particular part; these are the same as the Exhalant ducts. We shall just mention some particularities which may be observed in different Glands. First Glands differ in form, some appear to be an uniform mass, such as the Conglobate or Synapthodius Glands, others appear to be made up clusters of these joined together by Cellular Membrane, & are called Conglomerate Glands, such is the Salival and Pancreas, secondly they differ in Substance, some glands when cut thru appear to be wholly made of the same kind of flesh, in others there appear to be two kinds of flesh, as in the kidneys, the one kind is call'd Parenchyma, the other the Tubular part, thirdly they differ as to the course of their Blood Vessels, in some Glands there is but what we may call one center of Ramification from whence all the small branches seem to proceed as in the kidney, others have two as in the liver, one for the branches of the Vena Portum and another for the Veins going to the liver; and here we may just observe that the small branches of Blood Vessels never anastomose with each other in the Glands; fourthly they differ in respect to their Excretory Ducts, some Glands, as the liver have but one, some have many, the Breast has at least thirty which open upon the nipple. The Excretory Ducts for the most part regularly ramify like the Blood Vessels, but in some Glands, (the Breast for example) they ramify very irregularly becoming larger & larger as they approach the nipple. Some of the lowest of these Ducts are so large within the Breast as to serve as Reservoirs for the milk which can be pressed out at pleasure. The last difference we shall

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We shall make in Glands is, that Some Glands have a Bag, or Reservoir to contain the fluid excreted by them, some have it situated close to them, as the Gall Bladder is to the Liver; Others have it at some distance, for example, the Urinary Bladder from the Kidneys, while several Glands namely the Salivary, the Pancreas have none at all, or a Variety of Opinions have arisen on the Manner in which the Glands perform their Office, for a long time it was supposed to be done by Straining, till the Moderns accounted for it in different Ways, Some of them thought it was done by Filtration, thus that it depended on a particular Sort of figure of the Scutellæ or cells made capable of receiving particles only of a figure corresponding with these Cells, as Triangular, Quadrangular, &c. But according to these Theories, the Glands must be all soon obstructed, There are two general Opinions at present among the Moderns, the first is, That the different Secretions are only strained from the Blood, that is, they before existed in the Blood, For example they say Milk is nothing more than Chyle, which is carried to the Breast & obtained from the Blood, but changed in its Nature & properties, The Mechanical Physiologist have embrac'd the first of these Opinions, the Chymists the last, D' Hempton says he was taught to believe that they all existed in the Blood, & were only separated from it, as many things commonly allowed as facts are used to prove, such as Milk was only Chyle, which was contained in the Blood in greater quantity after a Meal, as blood drawn at this time will be found to have its Lumen white like Milk; that Animals living upon Vegetables will have their Milk account, but that on the other hand the Milk of Carnivorous Animals never comes, but becomes putrefaction, To prove the truth of this last Opinion, M^r John Hunter fed a Sheep with flesh, water only, for several days together, & he found that her Milk gave sour as soon as the Milk of those Animals that feed entirely upon Vegetables, D' Hempton believes that there is most Glands & only a straining of a fluid from the Blood, but as the Chymists —

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term is, there is a decomposition of the old materials, & a new assemblage of the new. He supposes that our excretions are of two kinds, first that those excretions, which are excrementitious & to be thrown out of the body are only strained from the blood, which is all that we can perceive necessary for their passage out of the body; but that the excrementitious ones, or those which are to be retained, are again mixed with the blood, are not only strained, but also changed in their nature & properties. This is an animal function, we shall probably never comprehend. We can easily perceive more operation to be made by supposing the particles of different sizes in the blood, which may be strained thro' vessels of different diameters, & when the large particles are wanted, the smaller may be carried off by vessels appointed to receive them, & again be mixed with the mass of blood. Some have imagined that the excretion of the glands depended upon the attraction of one fluid to another of the same kind, & that our master has originally impregnated our glands with the same kind of fluid it was destined to receive, which would admit no particles but those of the same kind thro' it, as we observe paper will not let water pass thro' its pores; others that it was a particular attraction between the solids & fluids, that glands which were of one Density could not attract fluids of the same Density. The change whatever it is, we are unacquainted with, we can no more irritate it than we can the circulation, so that as Dr Hale supposes, there seems to be something upon life. We may observe in general on glandular secretions, that there may be a previous preparation of the blood for that purpose, as appears from the Vena Portorum performing the office of a river in carrying the blood to the liver. The blood stops in the actual operation, the next the change produced in the fluid, & the next the carrying it to its proper receptacle by the secondary vessels. There is also absorption from the glands, and as Dr Nicholls has observed, if we blow

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if we blow into the Excretory Ducts of a Gland of the Porcine Biliary of the Swine for instance, we shall fill the Lymphaticos. In health the Secretions seem to go on pretty regularly, some are only made at particular times, or else they are greatly increased as that of the Milk in Women that are, with Child, or give Birth: and we may next observe, that in proportion as some of these Secretions are increased, others are diminished; this is most manifest in the action of the excretitious part of the Blood; for example, let a Person drink a large quantity of Water, that Water is carried into the Blood, now if the Weather and Body be warm, the greater part of that Water will pass off by the pores of the Skin, but if the Weather and Body be cold, the greater part will run off by the Kidneys. Irritation from external or internal things, as wind in the Eye or violent affection of the Mind will variably affect the Secretions. Some Medicines act indiscriminately in increasing various Secretions, whilst others will act generally on some particular ones, as Diuretics on the Kidneys. The last Observation we shall make is, that the motion of the Glands, particularly varied motion increases the Secretions.

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Lecture 8th

We have already described the Vessels, which carry a nutritious juice thro' throughout the body for its support; also the Vessels which bring it into their road of circulation together with the Absorbing & operating System. There are parts which Vegetables possess in common with Animals, but there is another which Animals alone are endowed with owing to creation of Motion. This System is the least understood of any in the body, indeed if we understood it perfectly, we should know the nature of the Union between the Soul & the Body. The Brain the sounding board of this System is a substance of a very particular nature, contained in the cavity of the Skull, it has an appendage, or continuation of its substance out of the skull, called the spinal marrow. That part of the Brain which the skull contains is called the Encephalon, and is divided into three parts. The Cerebrum which is by much the largest, the Cerebellum & Medulla oblongata. The Brain is covered by two membranes or coats, the outermost is a tough, tenacious substance, pretty thick, and having but few vessels, that carry acid blood, appear white, its outer surface is smoothly polished, and lies & loose on the Pia Mater, its outer surface adheres very firmly to the skull, it is called Dura Mater; to within this is the Pia Mater so called from its tender make, its outer surface near the Brain it is very smooth & has the appearance of Sotkin, near the skull it is very rough and full of process, that insinuate themselves between the convolutions of the Brain, & are every where attached to it. This membrane is very vascular especially on its inside, these two membranes were called Dura & Pia Mater, because all the membranes in the body were supposed to be derived from them. The substance of the Brain is very tender, & exceeding vascular, it is of two different colours, the outside called the cortical part is of a brown

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is of a brown, the inside called the Medullary is of a whitish colour. The Medullary Substance of the Cerebrum & Cerebellum run together & form the Medulla Oblongata, which continued makes the Medulla Spinalis, so that the spinal marrow is only a continuation of the whole mass; it is from this Medullary part of the Brain that all the nerves are formed. These nerves are the Instruments by which the communication is kept up between the Mind and the body; they are strong, white cords arising from the Brain & its Appendages, and extend to all parts of the body; it is a common opinion that the nerves are a continuation of the Medullary Substance, and that the coats of the Brain are continued over them also, covering & If we endeavour to trace the nerves from their origin, we shall find particularly in the spinal marrow, that they arise by separate threads, and in passing thro' the coats of the Medulla Spinalis unite into strong cords. In endeavouring to trace them upwards, we lose them in the Medullary Substance, so cannot tell whether they arise from the fore, back, or middle part. Anatomists suppose the nerves originate in the opposite part to that where they come from decapitating one another, because it has been observed Hemiplegia happens to the right side of the body, when the injury is done to the left side of the Brain, & vice versa. All the Caves of Glomus have been confirm this Doctrine. Anatomists suppose that the Medullary Substance is the same all over the body, & that the continuations of the coats of the Brain form their coverings, but this can be only traced in the Optic nerves. The Nervous Filaments which arise from the Medulla Spinalis, unite and form larger nerves, as was said before; it appears that a number of these Nervous Filaments are not only united in one common coat or covering from the Dura Mater, but each particular filament has its proper coat. The nerves are very strong, and their Strength consists in this covering. Some of the nerves

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Nerves are very small, and others very considerable, they branch in a regular manner becoming smaller & smaller, & are distributed to every part of the body. Every nerve that we can trace appears evidently to be composed of a number of smaller nervous filaments, these filaments are very easily seen, and separated in the ^{Caecum & Ileum} in the filaments of the constituent nerves have been supposed not to exceed the 3000 ^{part} of an Inch or th diameter. From many arguments to prove their ^{small} size, we shall only mention one, which is that every nervous filament appears to have its own peculiar sense of feeling, & therefore every point of the skin has its distinct nerve forming a distinct thread from beginning to end, & therefore every point of the body has a nervous thread running to the Brain. The nerves always rise in pairs from the Brain every part of the body has its pair of nerves: We may suppose the body to be divisible by a mathematical line, passing down the middle of the Head & spine, ^{perpendicularly} when the body is erect. People, who have an hemiplegia will exactly describe this line, saying that from the middle of the nose, forehead, & other parts of the face to the middle of the hinder part of the Head on one side, they are cold, & on the other side they are warm. They generally run with the blood vessels, but not from their beginning at the Heart, because they take their origin from a different part of the body, they meet with them in their course, & thus those of the arm, join with the artery of the brachial, and the great nerve, which runs to the thigh & leg comes from the Os Sacrum, passes down the back part of the thigh, & joins the artery at the股. They also ramify somewhat like the blood vessels, but their ramifications are only separations of the larger nerves into smaller. The branches of the nerves intermix with each other somewhat analogous to anastomoses in the blood vessels, which is called the branching of the nerves, or the communication

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communication between them. When great numbers of these branches run together in all directions similar to the Network or ramifications of the Blood Vessels, they are called Nerves. In most parts of the body the Nerves ramify like the Blood Vessels, but in the viscera they run in a different manner not entering them by separate trunks, but in the form of Sheaves, which is very particular, for this reason these nerves are not so well understood as in other parts of the body. We may observe in general of the nerves, that they do not vary their course in different subjects near so much as the Blood Vessels. We are next to consider the Ganglia; the word Ganglion is used in two different sense; as, in a Chirurgical sense, & in an anatomical one. In a Chirurgical sense it means an encysted tumour on a tendon, commonly containing a glairy fluid & is a disease; in an anatomical sense it means a little Lump or Swelling of some particular nerve, and is a gradual appearance. Ganglia are very conspicuous on the nerves of the viscera, the largest in the body is found on the first cervical nerve. They abound in the Intercostal ones. The structure of the Ganglia has not been made out in a satisfactory manner. There have been two opinions concerning this, and their two. One, that a Ganglion was a Congeries of muscular fibres to contract upon the nerves, and thereby affect the nervous faculties; the other, that it was a little appendage to the Brain, serving to produce fresh nervous filaments, which is quite idle. They contain a great number of vessels, & appear when injected to be almost wholly vascular. NB. It is not adviseable to open the tumified or Chirurgical Ganglia, it commonly produces much fever and inflammation, and the wound heals up untidily; if left to themselves after a time, the skin that encloses them loses its fluid, becomes thinner & inflamed & is painful, & they burst into the cellular

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* Cellular Membrane, the fluid of Dr. Miller is absorbed by the Patient does well - a small blow on the Ganglion; if it is sufficient to burst the Eye, will almost always effect a ^{the} Cure - we are next to consider the Use of the Nerves - The Nerves are the Organs of Communication between the Mind of the Body - They serve two purposes, First to bring Knowledge to the Mind of what passes without the body, hence our Ideas by Perceptions; and secondly to be the Means by which the Mind and Body are united, serving to raise Ideas by Perceptions in the Mind, and to transmit her Commands throughout the Body - To establish what has been said it is necessary to mention some Facts: that the Nerves have a Communication with the Brain is plain from this; if the Optic Nerves of an animal are cut, she is deprived of Sight, if the Sacro-vertebral cut he cannot walk nor feel in that Limb, to which the Nerve is sent, because it has lost its communication with the Brain, and the same effect will follow if the Brain be pressed on in the part whence the Nerves came, for the part to which these Nerves go will lose its feeling & power of Motion, as is the case in an apoplexy from an extravasation of Blood in the Brain - The common opinion is that there is a Sensuum commune lodged in the Brain, but some on the contrary have imagined that the Mind is not confined to any part in particular, but diffused thro' the whole body - It seems most likely that there is a Sensuum commune for upon cutting a Nerve in any part, that part becomes Paralytic which is below the division, which would not be the case if the Mind was diffused all over the body - Another Fact seems to prove this, every part of the body has its proper Nerves, now when a Limb

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Limb is taken off, the Corporeal Frame is not entire, yet the Hand is, and if from any cause the End of these Nerves which were continued to the Extremity of the Limb before it was cut off, should be disagreeably affected, the Patient feels a Sensation, similar to that he would have felt in that particular part, where those Nerves terminated when the Limb was not taken off. The knowledge we receive by our Sensations is not innate or born with us, but is acquired by experience. For example, a young Child runs its finger into the flame of a Candle, it feels the pain, but knows not the part hurt, & will again apply its finger to the flame, till he finds by experience that it is hurtfull; so also in a grown person, the particular part that is affected in all deep seated pains, he cant point out, because not seeing them, he cannot tell by experience where the pain lies. Irritation upon the Nerves produces very irregular & involuntary Motions of the Muscles, and Convulsions. Some Anatomists have asserted that as there are two functions belonging to the Nerves (that of conveying knowledge to the Mind, and that by which the Mind acts on the body) one of these functions may be destroyed and not the other; for example they say a case sometimes happens, in which muscular Motion or the function of a part subsists entire, and yet all feeling in that part shall be utterly destroyed. On the other hand that sometimes the Sense of feeling shall remain entire, yet the Motion of that part shall be entirely lost. Dr Hunter thinks it may be justly doubted (as very Nerves appear to have their peculiar Office) whether in the first all the Nerves of that part were destroyed, or only those appropriated to the sense of feeling, and in the other case whether those Nerves which serve for muscular Motion were not the

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not the only ones lost, or rendered defective. Physiologists have made mention of another Phenomenon in the Nervous System called Sympathy between the nervous affections; thus a Person taking a pinch of Snuff irritates the inner Membrane of the Nostrils, and immediately the Muscles serving to Respiration are irritated, so that they produce a violent expiration to blow off the offending Mallet, by passing thro' the Nose the breath dislodges the Snuff from the irritated part, and sneezing is caused to occur. This Sympathy of the Nervous affection has been accounted for by saying, There is a communication between the Nerves of those parts which sympathize with each other: this Opinion is not however given up. One great objection to it is, that there are so many communications between the Nerves of different parts, that was Sympathy to be occasioned by the above cause, there would be such a variety at the same time as would create confusion. At one time in France it was accounted for from just a question, that is that Sympathy was occasioned between two parts, which had the Nerves arising from the same part of the Brain, but this appears to be by no means the case. According to the plan laid down, we should next proceed to explain the principles of action which subsists between the two Systems by means of the Nerves, or in other words to explain the mode between the Soul and Body, but this we are entirely ignorant of. Some have supposed that the Brain was a gland that exerted a fluid called Animal Spirit, & that the nerves were the Executive deities, that this fluid was thrown from the Brain to produce motion in any part, and that it was thrown from the part on the Brain to produce Irritation: Others suppose them to be Solid Cords, and that they were acted upon as the strings of a musical Inst. & moved by vibrations being excited. We should however

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remember a very great discovery that has been made of late years, that of Electricity, which has led us to the knowledge of many surprising phenomena. Suppose the maker of an Electrical Machine shew it to a man entirely ignorant of its nature, who never heard of Electricity, how would he reason concerning it? he sees the Machine wound up, & he receives the shock, why he says, that he is ignorant of the structure of the machine, he is convinced it acts upon Mechanical principles, because he has no Ideas of powers superior to those; for the same reason he explains the shock from the Torpedo, or Leaping Fish upon the same principle, which is now proved to have an electric matter lodged in it, but in the various manners some endeavours to account for the principles of action between the Soul & Body; It appears to be effected by Powers altogether unknown to us, exceeding different from all Mechanical Ones, and of which it is highly probable we shall always remain ignorant. — *N.B.* The arm has five principal nerves and a short one that surrounds the articulation of the shoulder. — Having now considered the two great systems, the Vascular & Nervous, we shall next consider the Cellular membrane. — — — — —

The Cellular Membrane

Lecture 9th

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This is the soft connecting medium between all parts of the body, uniting Muscles, Veins, Nerves, Bones &c in short all the several parts together. The Cellular Membrane in some parts contains Fat, as that under the Chin &c. but in other parts as the Eye lid, & so forth as it does not, whether it contains Fat or not. It is everywhere ductile, & the connecting two parts, it suffers them to move with ease. Every thing in the Body adheres by this Substance, called by Anatomists by three different names, The Cellular, Adipose, & Peculiar Membrane; If we take a piece of it which contains no Fat, blow it up and dry it as a piece of the Peculiar for example, it appears to be a composition of fibres, & little membranes forming a very light ret. work, with interstices between them called Cells, by blowing it up it is true it is enlarged, & by having its interstices stretched and made bigger by want of the fat being broken thro', it appears more porous than naturally it is, by drying the fibres they lose their bulk considerably & seem lighter. When viewed in a wet preparation or as it is in the body, it comes to be a much closer ret. work composed of fibres exceedingly minute, & the interstices between them very small indeed. The general opinion is, that it is a ret. work, because it is porous, and that it is cellular, but cellular is rather a bad name, because it conveys the Idea of a cavity every where surrounded. Peculiar is a better & more expressive appellation than the former, & the Term Adipose will do for that which contains Fat, but not for all; it may be necessary to retain all the three in describing its appearance in the several parts of the body. When speaking of it generally, or altogether, we will call it cellular, & that species by which lies under the Skin, and contains the Fat, we will call Adipose; when there is no Fat, as in the Eye lid & so forth we shall call it Peculiar Membrane, thus we,

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thus we shall say that in the Penis it is Peculiar, and the parts surrounding the Rectum, that it is Adipose or We must conceive in our imaginations that the Lamina of our bodies is inorganic, for instance if we examine the coat of an Artery we shall find it well composed of still smaller Vesicles, and these probably of others still smaller, and we should conceive that we must at last come to a portion of matter inorganic or not composed of Vesicles, but there are so exceedingly small that they cannot be examined. Wherefore it is best to consider every part of the Body as entirely organic or composed of Vesicles. The Cellular Membrane is made up of a Mixture of arteries, veins, Sympathetic Nerves scattered all over it, it appears to have but few Vesicles that carry red blood, the far greater part carrying only Serum in their Natural State, but as we have observed before these same Vesicles may by inflammation be made to carry red blood, That the Cellular Membrane and particularly the Adipose is exceeding vascular, we can demonstrate by filling the Vesicles with a Vermillioned injection, so that it appears all over said. Haller supposed that the præputial adhesions which were formed in the body in consequence of inflammation are inorganic, for example in the Epididymy of Plaies, when the inflamed parts throw out a Mucous which makes adhesions, that they were not composed of Vesicles, but these adhesions formed according to Haller from Mucous thrown out from the inflamed Vesicles D' Mendet finds in the Cellular Membrane, and so far from being inorganic they are exceeding vascular; indeed when a new Substance is to be formed in the body, that there always makes it shoot in the form of Vesicles: The very Callus that cements a broken Bone, a creature are very vascular, and may be minutely injected in every part appears to be organic, the blood which produces the Wan out parts, Mr John Hunter has found will have Vesicles formed within trifles. The Cellular Membrane then may be said to be a composition of thread, a little strings so weaved together in a kind of

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kind of network, as to leave interstices between them, & these threads are entirely composed of vessels. It is universally scattered throughout the body connecting all parts that have a cohesion together, it unites the skin to the muscles, the muscles to each other, it covers not only the muscles in general, but every fibre of a muscle in particular, it pervades all parts of the body, to an inconceivable degree of minuteness, in short it is the universal connecting medium throughout the body. D'Albancet says it constitutes at least one half of the body, as he believes. Moreover many Anatomists called that stratum round a muscle, Membrana Commune Muscularum, but this need not be, particularly called Membrane; and they call the cellular membrane surrounding an Artery & Vein, The Cellular Coat, but this we have rejected. Let us now consider the appearance in some diseases as far as they regard this substance. In the first place we would observe that the pores of interstices of the cellular membrane communicate with each other and that they are always naturally a little moist. We may easily conceive a redundancy of this fluid may happen from various causes so as to fill the interstices, & form what is called Anæmia, or Sanguophlegmatid Disease; in this disease the Legs & Feet first begin to swell so slight, but in the morning the Swelling is abated, because all the interstices communicating with each other, the water by its Gravity tends to the lower parts which are the Legs & Feet when the body is erect as it commonly is during the day, & when the body is in an horizontal position, the water will return in great part from the Legs to the Trunk, & thence it happens that in the morning the Swelling in the Legs is less; as this Redundancy increases, the Swelling runs up to the Trunk, Arms & till it overflows all the cellular membrane, the interstices being full the skin will have the feel of dough or sponge, & by pressing on it with the Finger, the water is pressed into the neighbouring Cells, leaving a pit which disappears gradually as the water returns.

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By there being a communication of Cells we see the reason why, Excretions let out this Water, and as the Water makes its Way thro' the several Cells but gradually, we find that it does not flow thro' the puncture in a stream but comes out very slowly. The Water & Secretional fluid has sometimes been found changed into a gelatinous substance, the reason of which is not known. In the living body other fluids may be thrown into the interstices, and will run thro' them as the Water does, - Blood for instance may be extravasated from a ruptured vessel under the skin into the Cellular Membrane, & often makes a black mark of considerable extent, this is particularly the case from a black eye, the Cellular Membrane of that part being of a very loose texture. A man was taken into St. George's Hospital for the puncture of the Artery in bleeding, the Peron that bled him had by compression stopped the Bleeding suddenly, but the blood had got into the Cellular Membrane of the Arm, making the appearance of a blood pudding, there was a great quantity of blood thus lost out of the Vessels, and the man so weak in consequence of that loss (tho' still within the body) that he died the next morning, for the blood being gone out of the road of the Circulation might as well have been out of the body. - As Water & Blood may be accumulated & extravasated in the Cellular Membrane, so there is this way. There are two cases principally in which we see this collection of Air in the Cellular Membrane, the first & most common one is Mortification; in this disease the limb often becomes puffy with a springy swelling from the putrefaction letting loose a quantity of fixed air, which getting into the Cells is supposed to occasion this appearance, indeed this appearance may be considered as a sure mark, that the Mortification will spread farther if it arise above that already mortified, for we may be certain that a Mortification is not stopped, if the limb becomes still more.

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still more Empyseomaticus: The other case is, when People have a penetrating Wound into the Lungs or Throats; and this appearance is a certain Sign that a Wound has penetrated the Cavity of the Chest & wounded the Lungs; if a Wound penetrates the Chest or the Lungs are wounded, the Air that passes into the Lungs by Inspiration finds a passage thro' the Wound into the Chest by Expiration, and would pass out thro' the external Wound if it were big enough, but this commonly being small, the Skin prevents the Air from getting out, & obliges it to pass into the Cellular Membrane where it makes a swelling as before described, at first only round the Wound in the Skin, but as the same thing happens in every Expiration the swelling is increased till it at last overpreads the whole body, this is called Empyseoma; The Skin when handled makes a remarkable crackling noise, that a Person who has once heard it, cannot be afterwards deceived. Dr Hunter related the case of a Man at Limehouse, who had an Empyseoma from the Spicula of a broken Rib having wounded the Lungs, it extended all over the body, which was thereby quite out of form, and sounded like a Drum if tapped upon, his Eyelids were closed, & his Sustentum swelled to an enormous size, in short he resembled a Skin blown up more than a Man; he was relieved by making an incision on the broken Rib thro' the Skin to give free passage to the Air from the Lungs, & by prizing the Skin with their hands oiled towards the part, the Air was passed out from the other parts of the body just making a puncture or two in the Produm: when the incision was first made in the Skin, the Air rushed out as Air does from a pair of Bellows comprising Abreeps, which are always observed to be found in the Cellular Membrane are not supposed never to happen in Muscle for they certainly do, but then it is in the Cellular Membrane of the Muscle or of whatever part the Abreeps is inserted in, so that we may say, that this Membrane is the Respiracle, of Matter, and general Seat of an Abreeps. It may be asked, why does not Matter diffuse itself all over the body, in the same manner as Water or Air does when

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does when extravasated in the Cellular Membrane. To this it may be answer'd, that collections of matter are always preceded by inflammation, & it is the nature of inflammation to unite parts, so that all the little surfaces where the inflammation spreads are glued together, making that part of the Cellular Membrane hardly compact; thus when blisters are applied to Deep: vicinal Lgo, & by that means the Cuticle remov'd, the true Skin may be comp: card to a wet Cloth, which suffer the Water to drip thro' it, but when from irritation an inflammation comes on, no more Water will ooze thro' it. Matter in an Absciss by following the course of the Cellular Mem: brane will descend parts, as if done with a knif: We observe it always endeavours to make its way to the most depending parts, because its own gravity assists its descent, & it always points outwards because, as other fluid, so it prefers equally every way, the bones & other internal parts make most resistance to its progress, and therefore it is disposed to point towards the Skin, but in a Pleurisy that has terminat'd in Suppu: ration, if there be adhesions of the lungs with the Thura, the Matter meet: ing with great resistance from the Intercostal, Pleural & Segm:ents, will make its way into the lungs & be expell'd by them, generally however proving fatal by bringing on a Pulmonary Consumption. The reason why creatures of wounds that have been open for a length of time, are hollow, hard & tuck'd down to the bones so as to be immovable, is this, because the long continued inflammation necessarily attend: ant on the wound consolidates the Cellular Membrane, makes it hard & no longer ductile, as we see is the case in those parts where Jaws have been in the arm, & where Scrophulous Ulcers have healed. We shall now consider the Adipose Membrane. It is the general opinion that the Adip: or Animal Oil when separated from the blood is lodg'd in the Cells of the Cellular Membrane, but Dr. Hunter says, he is very sure that it is not lodg'd in those Cells, where Water & C^o is collected, but that it is lodg'd

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lodged in little separate bags which do not communicate with each other, for if we press on the Skin & by that means on the Adipose Membrane we do not find the Oil accide into the surrounding Cells, as water does in the Parietal Membrane, as it is observed that in some parts, the Epithelio & Serous part in st. ance, there is never any Oil even, but Water is often seen here, so that besides the Parietal texture there are bags containing Oil, strained off from the bone, & deposited in them which is taken up again occasionally. If a hole be made in the Cellular Membrane and Hoops lard be injected into it, while it is kept fluid it may be pressed out of some Cells into Others, as Water may, which shew that the Adip. is deposited in that part only of the Cellular Membrane, that is fitted to receive it. This Oil has different consistence at different periods of life, and in different Animals. In an Oct. it is firm, called Suet, in a Dog it is a soft exume, similar to which is the Human Oil. In a Kid as there is no fat at least not in a young one. The first fat we have in our constitution is immediately under the Skin, & there alone. In young Children there is commonly a great quantity of fat under the Skin, & hardly any in the other parts of the body, but as we grow up it is more equally distributed, the proportion of that under the Skin diminishing as the quantity of it in other parts increases, and as this Oil is exceedingly troublesome in dry preparations, by the tractings it occasions, we generally chuse young Subjects for this purpose. In the body there is always to be found some Oil after Death, except in one case only, the Inventor the old Standing Draper, such a Subject is very proper for a dry preparation. In general we may observe that case of mind and Body with good food disposes People to be fat, Vice versa D. Hunter says he is sure from experience, that being fat depends in great measure upon the mind, People of an anxious temper & great Sensibility who exercise the mind much are never fat. One great use of the Cellular Membrane has already been explained, which is to unite all

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unite all the parts in such a manner as to allow them to move upon one another with freedom where motion is required, & in some places it serves as a cushion of defence to the parts underneath from pressure as on the Buttocks, Soles of the Feet where considerable pressure is applied & therefore a great quantity of this Substance is provided — Almost all Writers on this Subject speak of its rising to fill up all the interstices of the Muscles, & thereby to give a more beautiful form to the body, but it is probable our Authors confound the use and not beauty, when he gives us this uniting Medium — Another great use of the Cellular Membrane is to serve as a Reservoir for the Animal Oil, which is supposed to be wanted for some purpose in the Constitution, Suppose in a full grown man 40 pounds of it was wanted for the animal Economy, we may admire the wisdom of the Creator in not Lodging it in one Bag or Reservoir in any part, for as it is now placed it serves as a case or covering to the body to defend it from cold, which appears to be the reason why fat People bear cold better than lean ones, the sole difference in them consisting in the fat alone, the muscular fibres & other parts being alike in both — The last use of this Animal Oil that we shall mention is, to keep up an equality of Nutrition, In its nature it appears analogous to the Expresed Oil of Vegetables, in our bodies Nutrition goes equally on whether we eat much or little food, hence when our diet is too scanty, part of the Oil is Abstained to make up the deficiency, and we become leaner. Instances are not wanting of persons who have lived ten or twelve days without food, being all that time supported by this Oil Only — —

24th
Oct 1800

The Muscular System

Lecture. 10th

Besides what have already been described, there are in the body organs of motion having their functions produced from an internal cause, & these organs are called ^{the} Muscles, of which we will in the first place speak anatomically and then physiologically. A Muscle means a mass of thready flesh, or bundle of threads which are easily separated from one another, and in a living body shorten themselves to produce motion. Some of the muscles are under the command of the will, some are not, those which are, under such command are called voluntary muscles, those which are not, are called involuntary ones. It is commonly thought to be a discovery of the moderns, that there are some which are voluntary, & some which are not. Galen all the Greek writers define them voluntary, & say that the Heart, over which they observe the will had no power, is no muscle; indeed the Heart perhaps may be a different organ, & has an action different from a muscle, for it acts insensibly without tiring. From observing the peculiarity of this part Galen might very easily conclude it to be no muscle. The principal part of a muscle is composed of threads so fine, that they cannot be traced singly; these fibres in different muscles are collected differently & bound together in fasciculi or little bundles by the cellular membrane, all the muscles then are made of a number of fibres connected with one another in fasciculi by means of the cellular membrane, & with membra lata fast upon their surfaces, & in the interstices of these fasciculi as the animal is fatter or leaner. This division of fibres descends to an inconceivable degree of minuteness. Some have supposed every fibre of a muscle to be a string of bodies like beads in shape; but as the most minute fibres are so small as not to be seen distinctly with the best microscope, it is impossible to know what they resemble; we find in a muscle,

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a Muscle, Arteries, Veins & Nerves, their red colour depends upon the blood in the Vessels, for by frequent washing it may be almost all got out, of the Muscle will then appear as white as fat, hence the difference of this colour in different people. The quantity of blood carried to a Muscle, does not seem to be entirely for its nourishment, but Muscular Motion also seems to depend thereon. If a limb be cut off that has been long used, hardly any muscular flesh is to be seen in the Stump, for the limb is shrunk, & whiter than one which is constantly in Action, which makes it evident, that blood is carried to a Muscle in proportion to its Action. The blood Vessels, of the Muscles are very numerous, the larger branches commonly run deep in the body of the Muscle in every direction, having no Center of Ramification as in Glands. Besides the fibre of a Muscle visible in this collected state and the blood Vessels, they have nerves which commonly run with the blood Vessels. It was a common opinion, that a nerve deposits its covering, which it has from the Dura Mater in the part to which it is distributed, so that the Nerves on this account were soft as papery in Muscles, but this is a mere Hypothetic, for as we can trace them in a Muscle they are as firm as in any other part. It appears that some Muscles have a greater quantity of Nerves than others, & this in proportion to their size, which has given rise to an opinion, that the Nerves are distributed in proportion, as the Muscles are more or less designed for Action. For example, the Eye is said to have greater number of Nerves than the Arm, which last is not so constantly in Action as the Eye, but on the other hand, the Heart, which acts the most frequently & constantly of any Muscle in the body, has not very many Nerves in proportion to its bulk as the Eye, & So & by in the structure of a Muscle, we may suppose that there are a great number of Lymphatic Vessels, tho' we cannot well distinguish them, being only surfaces commonly, on which we can find them or as to where they plainly. We shall next consider an Appendix to the Muscles,

the Tendon

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the Tendon, according to the old doctrine a Muscle was divided into two parts, the Belly, & the Tendon. The Tendons were supposed to be composed of fibres running in the same direction as those in the Belly of the Muscle, & connected together by Cellular Membrane so that is was further supposed that the number of fibres were the same in the Tendon & Belly, that one continued & fibre ran the whole length of the Belly & Tendon, but that in the Belly, as having more Adhesions, & in the Tendon, & Cellular Membrane than in the Tendons. Tendons are inelastic Chords composed of fibres running lengthwise connected together with Cellular Membrane, friend to be very vascular by injection, but have only few Vessels that carry blood, & but few nerves. It was a common opinion that as we grow up, the Muscular fibres shorten, & the Tendon grows longer, but this is not true, indeed a thicknes of sinewings may be observed about the joints of young people, which depends entirely on the Cellular Membrane. The opinion of the fleshly Tendinous fibres being the same continued ones, so that the number of them in the Tendinous & fleshly part is equal, appears to be ill grounded, for the Tendinous fibres & fleshly ones are differently arranged in the same Muscle, in some parts, as in the Temporal Muscle for instance, & I should say, that he is convinced that the Tendons & Muscles are distinct substances, as the Muscles & Bones are. The Tendons have no power of contraction, they may be considered surely as Chords fixed to the Muscle; nadum, to answer some particular purpose, having made use of an Agent distinct from the moving power & the power to be moved. Some Muscles have no Tendons, because there is no occasion for them. The life of the Muscle is next to be considered, a Muscle acts simply by shortening & lengthening itself, by shortening itself it moves the part it is attached to either moved; i.e. with a Tendon or immediately without one, its contraction depends upon the Muscular fibres alone, the Cellular Membrane only serves to unite the fibres together, the blood to nourish it & perhaps something more, the nerves not

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views not only serve for sensation, but also bring the power for moving it, the Tendons view as cords to unite them to particular parts; it may be asked why were Tendons made of soft the Muscular flesh continued on from one end to the other. The Ancients supposed they were made for the better uniting of Muscles to bones, that bone was of too hard a nature to admit a Substance so soft as Muscular flesh to be united to it, that a Tendon being of an intermediate Nature between bone & flesh, was therefore the properest Substance to unite them, but had they looked on the firm Adhesion but were some Muscles of bone without the intervention of a Tendon, they would have found this to be an Error. A Tendon being more compact than a Muscle, is used when Muscular fibres would have been too bulky & hindered the motion of the part, for instance it was necessary that the Flexor Muscles of the hand & fingers should be very strong, had a considerable Mass of Muscular flesh would have been very inconvenient in the wrist & hands, the Muscles are removed at a distance of Tendons made use of, which taking up but little room, freedom is allowed for motion, & the same reason when a Muscle runs over a joint, that part which moves upon a bone is always tendinous. Tendon bearing upon Muscles than Muscular flesh, which is another reason, why the belly of a Muscle never plays immediately upon a joint. Some of the Muscles pierce the Bones, they only enter the Perosteum, some are united without Cartilages, & these fixed into soft parts, as the Tongue. Muscles may be divided into three different Claps, and have subdivided into genera & species. Of the first Clap is the Oblong, the second, the Hollow Muscle, & the third may be called the Triangular Claps, partly hollow & partly Oblong. Of the Oblong Muscle there are many different species, if all the fibres of a Muscle were to run parallel to each other, it might perfectly be called a rectilinear Muscle, but as there is not an instance of this kind on the body, that which approaches the nearest to it is the Vartious, and the Pinniform Muscle is the one most commonly used in the body, of this there are several

are several kinds, / the fibres run parallel to each other, but obliquely to the axis of the muscle / the half Penniform has oblique fibres on one side only, as the Flexor Pollicis longus, the two half Penniform joined on the Extensor, encircling, or any number of them joined as the Deltoid. — So consider the reason for which Muscles are Penniform, they need only be explained upon mechanical principles, and we should always know if the Phenomena agree with the Theory, if they do not, we may be assured that the Theory however specifies, is false. Those fibres whose Travels are mostly rectilinear, will have a greater length of fibres than the Penniform muscle, that is they will move a body, farther than the oblique ones, but with much less force. Muscles are called Radiated when their fibres run to a center, as in the Diaphragm. The fibres of hollow muscles have a variety of directions, in some they are regularly circular, as in the Posterior, in the Heart they form a kind of double Circle or figure of 8. — By the mixed Clap we mean those, which sometimes act as hollow muscles, & sometimes like oblong ones, of this kind are the Abdominal Muscles, they act as hollow ones when they give the belly, & as oblong ones when they bend the body forward, — It has been common to call the End of a Muscle, which is least moved its Origin, & the other end its Insertion, but as this may sometimes lead us into an Error, it will be better to speak of them by the general names of Attachment. — And now to generally divide the Muscles into different Claps, but this division is neither regular, nor certain. Some Muscles had names given very early, but the generality were not named till after the time of Celsus. — They generally derive their names from their several uses, thus there is the Clap of Inspiration Muscles, and this is subdivided into two, first those for Inspiration which raise the ribs, and secondly those for Expiration, — and of the last there is the Constrictors, the Flexors, the Sustentors, & those which serve for Abdominal Nutrition. — We should be particularly careful to distinguish these.

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Those Muscles which move to the ^{Superior} of a part from those which lie on a part, for instance, the Muscles which move the Leg, & upon the Thigh, and those which move the Thigh, lie upon the lower part of the Trunk, likewise the Muscles which move the Forearm, lie upon the Arm. Authors attending to this in describing Muscles have frequently left in doubt & full of their meaning, the Appendage of a Muscle, a Tendon, we have already taken Notice of, another Appendage is a thin Expansion of a Tendon called a Fascia, there is also another appendage, a Pulley, as the Trochlea this which the Superior oblique Muscle of the Eye moves by, the Tendon is another Appendage still, is made by the tendinous ligament to a Bristle to keep down the Tendons & prevent their Standing up when the Muscles contract, as those of the Wrists; Lastly, there is the Sacculus mucosus, which was discovered by Dr. Douglas, its use is to prevent Friction, where a Tendon plays upon a bone, the end of the Tendon fans out part of the Bag, & the bone the other part; A large one may be seen under the Deltoid, where it plays upon the head of the Humerus —

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Lectur. 11

Having now considered the general structure of Muscles anatomically, we proceed now to consider them Physiologically, to consider their action, that is, Muscular Motion as it is called. In the living body, the action of a straightening, or an endeavour to shorten, itself, this is generally the state of a muscle in action, but sometimes it is lengthened if during the time of its action, it is resisted by pull'd out, as a man drawing his arm by another, which he endeavours to prevent by the action of the fibres of that part. The action of all muscles depends upon their longitudinal fibres, that is, those which are peculiar to them as muscles, for whatever is void of transverse fibres, they are evidently nothing but cellular membrane bearing the longitudinal ones. The action of the muscles as to the effect produced is very different in different muscles, as between straight and hollow ones, for instance. The effect also will differ according to the situation of the muscle, thus the Trochlearis muscle of the Eye by means of the Pulley, draws the globe in a direction different from the line of contraction. The effect differs as the whole or part of a muscle only happens to act, thus the whole of the Deltoid acting will raise the arm directly upwards, if a portion of it only is in action, the arm will be pull'd more or less to one side or other, or upwards, or downwards as the portion happens to be more on one side, than another, or on the top. It has been a question with some (and an idle one too) whether one part of a muscle can be in action & contracted, and another part of it relaxed & passive at the same time. Nothing may be more plainly observed than this partial motion in the Deltoid, one part of it shall be contracted & hard, while another part shall be relaxed & soft, that the Radiated muscles particularly act in one part & relax in another at the same time, is sufficiently evident too in the Visceralis Major. The effect produced by muscles in action will differ according to the state of the joint they are to move; thus the Biceps Brachii when the hand is supine will bend the arm, but when it is prone, the effect produced is different and thus happens

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There happens to be a co-operation or combination of the action of other Muscles; thus if only one of the Muscles be put in action, the head will be pulled down on the Shoulders; but if both act at the same time, the head will be bent directly forward; This co-operation or combination is great, not in our bodies than ~~one~~ would imagine especially in the Extremities where a Variety of Motion is required in the same part, it is also infinite as makes our System of Muscular Action very complicated as hard to be understood in a Man that is performing the lightest action moves a great Number of his Muscles. Muscular Motion, tho' it seems to be very easy & natural to us to perform, yet is only acquired by Attention & Use. Children learn to use their Muscles by degrees, & it has cost us great Labour in learning how to perform many Actions with our Muscles, which now appears to be quite natural to us. When we consider the force of Muscular Action, we must make a distinction between their absolute & relative force. Force Absolute is what a Muscle could exert, independant of its Nigress & Inclination; supposing a Muscle alone was to have a weight on one end & fastned to any thing at the other, the force it could exert to raise the weight will be Absolute force. Force Relative is that with which a Muscle really does act in our Action according as it is placed in the body with regard to Origin & Insertion; as this generally is greatly inferior to Absolute force. The Muscles are commonly inserted into the Bones near their Center of Motion, which makes them act at a disadvantage for if a string be tied to that part of a Stick near its Center of Motion, it will require a greater force to raise a weight placed at the end, than if a string be tied farther off the Center of Motion, but this disadvantage is compensated for by very great advantages: the Muscles are strong enough to overcome this disadvantage, and the compact form of the body requires them to be placed as they are, besides their Velocity is greatly increased by it, as they only need move a little to produce their effect; Thus the hand will move less in turning a wheel around, if it be placed near the Center, than if it be placed near

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placed near the circumference as it is very evident that it is not elasticity which produces Action in a Muscle. Let us examine a few of the Phenomena observable in the Action of Muscles; first, a Muscle in Action grows hard in its Substance, & contracts in the length of the resistance does not equal, or overcome it, secondly, some Muscles in Action will shorten themselves two thirds of their length or more, this can be proved in the fibres of the Stomach, Intestines, etc. The Urinary Bladder in People that are strong will sometimes contract itself like a solid ball; thirdly, it is incontestable that the whole body of a Muscle does not grow visibly bigger in Action, that is if it increases in bulk, it decreases in length in the same proportion. Muscles during the time of their Action were said to grow pale, but this opinion is not given up to Obscure this, Experiments were made on Dogs & other Animals where the Heart was observ'd at the time of its contraction to be compalety pale, but it was not that the Muscular flesh grows pale, but being then as the blood being pressed out of it by the contraction, & such on that account paler than when it was distended w^t full of blood. It was a common opinion that in living Animals, the Muscles were always ready that the cause of contraction constantly existed & even in that the Spine of the Ass was said to be always contracted if not overt^come by some Cause, as the Faculty that the Fibres of the Arteries & Veins are always endeavouring to bend by the Tension to subvert them, these by their opposite Tensions keeping it in Equilibrium, but this Opinion is manifestly absurd. In the Voluntary Muscles motion depends entirely on the Will, that is to say, they do not contract with any sensible force, but only just enough to adapt themselves to the different positions of the Limbs. The Muscles have Nerves of Motor distributed to them by many Experiments have been made to ascertain their influence on the Muscles, every body allows that when a Nerve, is cut that, or tied tight, all motion ceases in the part to which it is distributed. The same thing happens when the Brain is injured to those parts which derive their nerves

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These Nerves from that part of the Brain which has received the injury, Irritations of the Nerves will produce irregular Motions of the Muscles or Convulsions. - If we cut off the head of a Frog, & run a pin down the Spinal Marrow, the whole Body will be convulsed, as if we prick the Spinal marrow as it comes out from the Skull, the Muscles of the head will be convulsed also to ascertain what share the Blood has in producing Muscular Motion Experiments have been made by tying the Cervical Artery, but this experiment disproves nothing for there are a great many Anastomosing lateral branches. - Hardly however seems to prove that the arterial blood has very little influence on Muscular Motion; on the other hand, when the Muscles have been long deprived of the Muscular fibres shrink their colour becomes white, & they lose in a great measure their muscular appearance we say, that a Muscle is active when it contracts the papier when it relaxes, and further the Heart is active in the Systole, & passive in the Diastole. - but it appears that the Heart is active in the Systole & Diastole too, for if a Ring of the Substances of a Turtle's heart be cut out, the fibres will not only shorten themselves so as to contract the Circle, but they will likewise lengthen themselves so as to enlarge the Circle & this alternately - Humboldt's Theories have been invented to account for Muscular Motion. Some have supposed that the Action of Muscles was caused by a flowing of Spirits into them from the Heart; others that the Muscular fibres were a chain of Vesicles, & when in action were filled with Animal Spirits; others that the Vesicle of which the Muscular fibre was supposed to be composed were filled with Animal Blood, while the Nerves were supposed to act as Reticular muscles to prevent stretching them, when in an inactive state. Others have supposed that Muscular Motion was caused by an Effervescence between the blood & Animal Spirits. - as we are entirely ignorant of the Structure of a Muscular Fibre, it is impossible we should know what changes are produced in it by the Action of a Muscle, and it is highly probable

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probable, that Muscular Motion will never be explained. A question has often been started, namely, whether on this or that part of the body, the Utens for instance, there are any muscular fibres. Those, who propose such a question, go on to suppose, that the Structure of all Muscles is the same, which may probably not be the case; for we may observe, great difference in different Muscles. Some are Voluntary or Subject to the Will; These soon grow tired with using; Some are involuntary & these never tire, tho' their Action sometimes last upwards of an hundred Years; Others are both Voluntary & Involuntary, for instance the Muscles of Respiration, whose Action, we can either accelerate and retard at pleasure, tho' commonly they act without the interposition of the Will. Of late Years Haller's Doctrine of the Irritability of Muscles has made a great noise, but when he says No parts of the body are irritable, but the Muscles, it is plain that he only means, that No parts of the body contract from a Stimulus being applied to them, but the Muscles; this appearing to be, a property peculiar to the Muscular fibres, but great pain may be produced by stimulating parts which every one allows not to be Muscular.

N.B. - The most certain sign of Death need to satisfaction is when all the Muscles of the body become stiff & rigid.

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The Bones

Lecture 12

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The Bone differs from all parts of the body in hardness & inflexibility, every part of the body has some flexibility, but the bones on their external surface are very compact, their internal part is spongy or cellular. The compact part does not appear porous to the eye, but by the help of 4 levers, or if we examine bones that have been long exposed to the weather, whereby every thing in it that was not bone is destroyed, we shall find that they are full of cavities. These cavities are principally filled with blood vessels, which proves the bones to be vascular, to have a circulation thro' them thousands of vessels run branching inwards into the bone & are ramose, with the branches of arteries going to the marrow, which branch outwards to meet them. Good Authors agree that the bones have no feeling, it is impossible to determine absolutely whether they have nerves, or not, as we cannot colour nerves, nor trace them to any degree of minuteness; the nerves may be traced running into bones, but this is not known whether they terminate in the marrow, or in the compact part of the bone, if they do they are probably so loaded with earthly matter as to be insensible. It has been said, that the compact substance, is composed of laminae, like plates of wood laid on each other, & that to prevent these plates or fibres from becoming brittle, Nature has furnished the marrow or oil, and transverse & longitudinal canals running thro' the bones to distribute it to every part, and as a proof of the existence of these medullary canals they mention the transmutation of oil thro' the bones after they have been cleaned. MORTON says, that the medullary canals are largest on the external surface of the bones, becoming smaller as they run into the compact substance, & become smaller & smaller as they run inwards, this fact falls to the ground. He likewise says that the canals for the blood vessels are round, that those for the marrow are oval, or flattish; but if we break a bone thro' where an artery sends off a branch,

the hole

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the hole will appear Oblong; there does not appear to be any such Indulillary, Canals. If we take the bone of an Animal just killed, & wipe & dry it, it will become white, that is, it will have no Oil on its Surface, but let it be kept some time and the Oil will gradually transude, so that the Marrow does not transude the Substance of a bone till after death, the same thing happens to the blood in the Vessels; now if the Oil was always in the compact Substance of a bone, the appearance of it would be the same in a living or a dead body, but this is by no means the case, therefore we guess & look upon Marrow in another light than given to prevent moisture & softness in bones. The Bones appear white & opaque in proportion as they contain less Oil. It has been an opinion with many that the bones of People become brittle from a deficiency of this Oil or Marrow, but the bones of Old People in general, contain as much Marrow as when they were young; as their brittleness proceeds from a quantity of the fatty matter being carried off in old age, as we shall have occasion to prove, farther on. A Discovery of Mr John Hunter's proves that the use of the Marrow is not to prevent the bones from becoming brittle, for he finds that some Animals have hollow bones without Marrow, & that the Air of Respiration passes into them from the lungs, particularly the Os Femoris & Humoris of some birds, yet their bones are not more brittle than those which contain Marrow. There is an Error running thro all Physiologoy at this time, namely that of explaining all parts of the body upon Mechanical principles, principles very different from those which exist in many parts of the Animal Machine: & therefore it has been said in explaining this Matter, that a bit of hard (that is dry) wood so easily broken, but if it is soaked in Oil it is rendered tougher, we are now to consider the Cellular part of the bones; all bones have more or less of the compact Substance, & more or less of the Spongy, or Cellular, which last is always placed on the inside of a bone —

Authors —

The Bones

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Authors have described to a great degree of minuteness the different kinds of cells in bones, but no farther knowledge of them is necessary, than to know that they form a regular kind of network; all the cells communicating with each other. The structure is very different in different parts of the same bone. It has been a question whether in some bones there is not one large cavity without any Cancelli; generally there are some cells but the bony substance is the same in every part: all the cavities are filled with Marrow. The Marrow should be considered as similar in every respect with the Oil in the Adipose Membrane, as that is different in consistence in different Animals, so is Marrow also: The Ox has a very firm Marrow when cold, the fat in the Adipose Membrane is firm also; In the Hog & Human body it is soft & greasy, their Adips being so too. From not attending to this, some have said that the Marrow in the middle of a bone is hard, & that in the Spongy Cells of the exterior cavities it is softer & more bloody, & this is called Sucus Medullaris: But as far as we can judge, the Marrow is the same in all parts of the body: its being bloody depends only on the blood contained in the sanguiferous vessels dispersed thro' it: when examined by the Microscope we see in it little small Masses, these are little bags full of Oil; the Marrow like the Cellular Membrane is very vascular, fine Membranes run thro' the whole of it, as the Vessels upon the exterior. Anatomists say there is a Membrane round the whole Marrow, lying between it & the bone, called the Membrane of the Marrow or internal Pericelium: but this cannot be demonstrated in the Human body, because of the roughness of the inner Surface of bones; In Quadrupeds it is certainly vorhanden, be distinctly seen in the bone of an ox; thousands of vessels are to be seen in the Marrow, so that when they are injured it is uniformly red. Two uses have been ascribed to the Marrow: the first, we have already mentioned, namely, that it serves to moisten the bones & prevent their breaking, and the second was, that it soaked this into the cavities of the joints to lubricate them & facilitate their motions; but it does not

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does not appear to serve any particular purpose. The Bones were supposed to be made hollow for the Reception of the Marrow, but the real reason of their having this form, was certainly to save the expence of bony Matter; for by being made hollow they are much stronger than if they had been solid, less in Diameter, so as to have had the same quantity of bony Matter in them. The Bony Substance appears to be of such a hard Nature as not easily to be produced in the body. If some Bones are not perfect till 20, or 25 years of Age; we see then that for these Years on there is a cavity left in a bone; now what shall this cavity be filled up with? why, Oil is wanted in the Constitution, therefore it may as well be filled up with Oil, as left empty & useless; so that the Marrow is the bone in all respects, as the fat in the Adipose Membrane; when from any cause the Substance of the fat is wasted in the Adipose Membrane, there is very little Marrow in the bones & vice versa. In an Old Decayed, the Oil in the Adipose Membrane is lost, & in its place supplied with Water, so also is the Marrow changed, instead of it there remains in the bone a watery fluid; so that the Marrow & Adipose always keep pace with each other. Thus far the Structure of Bones in general: we shall next speak of the covering of the Bones, the Periosteum. The outer Surface of a Bone is covered always (except where it is covered with Ligament, Tendon, or Ligament, ^{or} in the teeth where it is exposed) with a Membrane uniting firmly to it called Periosteum, and from the outer surfaces of it goes the Cellular Membrane to unite to the surrounding parts. Anatomists say, that it is a double Membrane made up of two laminated Strata in the first Stratum or outer layer, they say (slightly enough) consists of Tendinous & ligamentous fibres inserted on the bone, & therefore it is thicker in those places where there are few Tendons & Ligaments; that this is the manner in which the Periosteum is produced, is without a doubt, & that it is thicker in some parts than in others. The fibres of this outer Stratum are very strong, & differently disposed, besides the outer they say there is an inner Stratum made of finer fibres running in the direction of the bone — There appears

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appears not to be the least occasion for this distinction, it seems to be one sort of Membrane only, with fibers running thro' this, & though it is possible to divide it into many, that is, & that is all one of the same Membrane. The Periosteum is more vascular than the Tendons or Ligaments, because besides those Vessels, which it has from the Tendons & Ligaments, there are others entering it which go to & come from the bone. It has been much disputed of late, whether the Periosteum has any nerves or not; Hallet says, it is insensible; D'Herbelot says, he can trace nerves passing thro' it, but cannot say, whether it has any applied on its surfaces or not; he thinks it insensible. Various are the uses which have been ascribed to the Periosteum. From its supposed exquisite sensibility, some thought that it served as a guard to the bones, to warn us of the approach of mischief. Others supposed that it served to set bounds to the growth of bones, which would otherwise increase irregularly, but bones certainly take their form from some other cause. Others supposed that it served to accelerate the blood in that on the bone, for they said that the blood being thrown into an artery, would distend that of the Periosteum, that then the Periosteum would contract & force upon the Blood thro' the Bone, but they did not consider that so much force would be lost in distending the membrane, as would be gained by its reaction. Others supposed it served to unite the Epiphyses to the bone, but this appears to be an accidental one. Du Verney thought that it served to make bone & Cartilage meet his arguments are not well supported. It also seems to be nothing more than by embracing the whole bone to afford a safe & fast insertion to Tendons & Ligaments & to protect the Blood Vessels from being ruptured, which enter the bone from those Muscles that are connected to them by their fleshy fibres only. We come now to consider the diseases of the bones; In the first place they may become soft & pliable in consequence of the bone matter being absorbed from them, and in some cases this texture appears to be entirely changed.

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changed: In old age a considerable quantity of the bony substance is absorbed and carried away. The marrow being a vascular part is liable to diseases, tho' it is well defended by its bony case, yet sometimes an abscess is formed in the inside of a bone, attended with great pain, & other terrible havock before it appear outwardly. The periosteum is now well known to be a very insensible part in its sound state, yet diseases of the periosteum are very troublesome & tedious, by reason of its connection with the bones: when the periosteum is much disordered, the bone is soon affected. It has been long observed that most poisons commonly attack the periosteum or the bones of the extremities, the Skin, the Throat, & the bones throughout the Nodes, which were long supposed to be an affection of the bones are now known to be a disease of the periosteum: the Venereal poison inflames, thickens & swells the periosteum, and a viscid fluid is lodged under it which if not timely relieved will at last affect the bones themselves; but in the beginning, it is always a disease of the periosteum only: Prudent Surgeons in such cases don't shew to trust a salivation alone for the cure of the venereal disease, and leave those untouched, for it has happened that the virus has been retained in them after a mercurial course has been finished, so that they usually open them with a lancet first, but it is better to make a simple incision down to the bone, than expose them to lancets: tho' they will often soften and disappear during a mercurial course, yet it has been found that when opening of them has been neglected, that it has been sometimes necessary to do it at last to get rid of the poison entirely. The effect of the Venereal poison is evidently increased by cold, The nodes are always found on those bones which lay near the surface of the body: They first appear on the Spine, and not till after a great length of time on the Shoulders: A node on the thigh bone was observed of

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It is from the Throat being so much exposed to cold, that the disease is so often makes its appearance there; if then cold makes the Venereal Disease worse, we might conclude, that the disease is more insiduous in cold climates than in warm ones. Some say that this is actually the case, that in Portugal, it is so mild, that the disease hardly ever applies for relief, and it is also said to be very mild in the West Indies: on the other hand some affirm just the contrary, & say the disease is well known to be particularly violent in the East Indies; however that be, Mercury is the Specific in that case, and the reason why we do not get cured here so soon as in the hotter climates is, because we cannot take such a quantity of Mercury, as is requisite, without bringing on violent Symptoms, such as Diarrhea, Fluxes &c from the coldness of the Climate.

Sept 13th

The General Doctrine of Bones

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LECTURE. 13

Writers on Anatomy have described the irregularities on the external Surface of bones very minutely, & indeed to very little purpose, thus some kind of Proceries were called Caput, Other Convolvles &c these will be taken notice of, when we describe particular bones. The Cavities on the external surface have just as absurdly been described, some of them are said to be cavities for Articulation, others for containing soft parts as the Sockets of the Eye, &c. The colour of the Human bones being similar to that of the bones of Quadrupeds, is therefore well known. The bones of young Children are of a more purple colour than those of Adults, because their Veiplets are more numerous in proportion to the body matter. A very useful discovery was sometime ago made by Mr. Bechier namely, that animals which have fed on Madder for some time have their bones stained with it, & what is very remarkable the Madder produces no such effect on any other part of the body. Mr. John Hunter has made a number of experiments with Madder, he finds that the bones of an old Animal fed with Madder will hardly be tinged with it, but that the bones of a young Animal will be considerably tinged with it in a short time. This is an exceedingly useful Discovery, as it teaches us, in some measure, how the bones grow, for from Mr. John Hunter's experiment it appears to be only that part of the bone, which is formed during the time of feeding on Madder, which takes this Tinge. Some kind of Owls are said to have black bones, but this is a Mistake, their bones are of the same colour as the bones of other Owls, but covered with a black Periosteum. here is a Proof, it may be said, that the Periosteum is not composed of Tindons, or of Ligaments, because they are not black, but we may suppose that there are Veiplets in the Periosteum, which deposit, or incrrete this black colouring, & not in the Tindons, & Ligaments; but Mr. Hunter says —

The General doctrine of Bones

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says that the Tendons & Ligaments are coloured with & also the Bones
by a Chemical Analysis appear to differ from the other parts of the body
only by having a larger quantity of Animal Earth in their substance; it is
not calcareous, but a pure Absorbent Earth, which will stand any degree of
heat without vitrifying, called therefore Refractory. This Earth constitutes
so large a part of the bones as to preserve their form after all their other parts
are destroyed by time. When Vaults or Leaden Coffins have been
opened, in which bones have laid for ages, they have retained their form, but
crumbled to dust on the slightest touch. An oil which is one of the prin-
cipal parts of bones adheres very strongly to this Earthy Matter, and
cannot be disengaged without a very violent fire, it is this oil uniting
to the Earth, which makes what is called Ivory, Black. Anatomists
are unwilling to change the old terms for the Articulations of the joints, tho'
they cannot properly express their meaning by them. Galen speaking of
the Articulations of the Joints, says there are two principal kinds; first
those for Motion, which he calls Diarthrosis, and secondly, the Articulation
without Motion, or Synarthrosis, and these he subdivides into several other
clases, vide Thelius Anatomy, or Motore's Pathology. This Method is a
very lame one, indeed weak is the notion of the joints, that they cannot be
well divided into different classes, for the classes run so with one another
that we cannot draw the line between them. In Joints there are two
advantages to be considered: one that they admit of a great deal of Motion;
the other that they are strong & we can hardly have a joint strong & yet
admit of a great deal of Motion, for the form of a joint intended for
Strength, necessarily confines Motion. The same Observation will
hold good in regard to the Ligaments, the stronger & the thicker the capsular
Ligament is, the stronger the joint will be, but then the more Motion will be
restrained by it. This doctrine will be found to explain many Phenomena of
the joints.

There are

The Diseases of the Joints

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There are two diseases to which the joints are liable, the first is Dislocation or Luxation, which has been divided into Luxation complete, & Subluxation; in the first instance the head of the bone is entirely removed out of its place: in the second it is only partially dislocated, or the edge of the bone rests upon the edge of its Socket. The Ball and Socket joint cannot have a permanent Subluxation, as the Motion of the Limb would determine the head to go into, or on the outside of the Socket. In the Ginglemi it may be permanent, but as a luxation here can be made only in two directions, so a Subluxation can only be sideways, which we shall plainly see must be the case in the joint between the Humerus & Ulna.

The Second disease, to which joints are liable, is called Ankylosis, by which is now generally understood a Stiff joint. There are two kinds of it, one in which the joint is quite rigid & immovable, commonly with a firm Union between the two bones, & is always incurable; the other called incomplete is when there is not a total immobility but a little Motion remains, this when it depends upon a disease of the fleshy substance surrounding the joint may oftentimes be cured, but when the bones are affected, it is irremediable.

The Cartilages

We shall need speak of a Substance, which has not yet been mentioned, viz. a Gristle or Cartilage, which always covers the ends of those bones, that are designed for Motion. It is a very white elastic compact substance, & may be known from every other part of the body by cutting it, for it never cuts as composed of threads or fibres, but like a piece of lace or Chine, in which it differs from the Tendon or Ligaments in Authors frequently talk of a Cartilaginous Ligament & a Ligamentous Cartilage, a distinction without a difference. Some Authors have defined a Gristle to be a soft bone, & say that all bones were once Gristles, but bones are of a quite different nature.

The Cartilages

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nature. The Cartilages may properly be divided into three different classes, first, those which we find in young animals to supply the place of bone, till it can be formed; secondly, those which are to remain Cartilages during life, & which are not situated in the joints, such as those of the ears, Aspera articularia. Thirdly, the Articular Cartilages covering the surface of bones in the Joints. The Cartilages of the first & second class are covered with a Membrane, composed of Tendinous & Ligamentous fibres, entirely similar to the Peritoneum, & is called Perichondrium; it may be distinctly seen on the thigh bone of a Child, & on the Cartilages of the ribs, but there is not the least appearance of it on any of the Articular Cartilages. In fact even a Cartilage seems to be similar to the white of an egg fixed by boiling, & like that too it has not the least fibrous appearance, but if we saw the head of a bone half this, and then break it, we shall see it made up of a number of fibres running perpendicular to the bone, & to each other; these must undoubtedly be transverse fibres also to connect the others together, but they are so small as not to be discernible. The Cartilages of the first class have a few vessels that carry red blood, but the Articular Cartilages have none at all, what vessels they have must be all of the veins kind. We can inject the Cartilage of a growing bone, but the red matter will stop when it comes to Articular Cartilage, & upon it form around it a vascular border. The Cartilages are supposed to be entirely destitute of nerves, & of course insensible. The use of the Cartilages is different in different parts of the body. The use of the first class is to supply the place of bone for short timbers in young animals, as has been already mentioned. Those of the second class are used where bone would not have been so convenient, as in the nose, ears, & several other parts, where bones would have been often liable to be broken; the Cartilages of the third class serve to prevent friction between the ends of the bones, & from their elastic quality, when strongly pressed on, they are in very close contact with the ends of the bones, & this makes the joint stronger in proportion to the weight pressing upon it, & from their being elastic they may probably prevent jarings.

The Cartilages

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Parting of the joints is violent & compell'd by giving way, as by that means breaking the force of the blow. The Cartilages are the least liable to disease of any part of the body, than seldom found changed in their texture; They also seem to bear pressure better than any other part, for in anoxia now it sometimes happens, that the Ribs on their living parts are quite distract'd by the pressure of the Ammonia, while the Cartilages uniting them to the Sternum are sound & only bent outwards. It has been a question, whether a Cartilage will granulate flesh or not; Dr. Hunter in one Case, which he had an opportunity of examining, found that it did not, but he believes that after some time they will always unite.

The Ligaments

We are next to examine the Ligaments. A Ligament is a Substance that binds one bone to another of the joints, it is easily distinguished from a muscle by its inelastic quality, & fibrous texture. A Ligament is evidently the same kind of Substance as a Tendon; & the once the Tendons may be seen detaching threads down to the Patella for its Reinforcement, & grasping down the fore part of the Tibia, it becomes the ligament uniting that with the Patella, plainly therefore a continuation of the Tendon. Ligaments have been distinguished into various kinds, as the disposition of their fibres varies. Let us first consider particularly what is called a Capsular or Bursal Ligament, as it relates to the joints. A Capsular Ligament looks like a bag when it is entire, it may be properly considered as composed of two laminae or coats, the outermost is run down upon the Articular ^{Surface}, & is very thick; the inner and what involves the joint, when the cavity of the joint ends, seems to turn & cover the Cartilage of the articulation. In a young animal, we can sometimes pull off a fine membrane from the Articular Cartilage evidently reflected from the inner surface of the Capsular Ligament, so that this membrane is reflected over the Cartilage & soon to the ligament again without end, making a compleat bag for containing synovia. The laxity, or length of the Capsular Ligament is in proportion to the largeness

largeness of motion in a joint, so as just to allow of necessary motion. Dr Hunter says, he has been often puzzled to account for the crackling of the fingers, when they are pulled, & he thinks it may be by the two fingers having first made a vacuum by their attraction, & then, when the vacuum is taken away by separating the bones, the crackling is produced. So after they have once cracked, if tried they dont crack again until the bones be moved one against the other for some little time. In some joints the Capsular Ligament is not inserted far from the Surface of the Articulation, but in those which admit of a great variety of motion, it is inserted far on the bones. It is observable in the cutting off a joint, that we do more easily if the bone be thrust as far on one side as possible, for by this means there is a greater part of the ligament actually forming the joint put on the stretch, & thus we can cut the joint with more certainty. Besides the Capsular Ligament, there is another within the joint to connect the bones together, and it restrains motion, & prevents dislocation, but of this more by & byes. The Capsular Ligament confines the Synovia in the joint, this is principally the use of the inner return of fibres which invest the joint all round; it also serves to prevent the fleshy parts from being pressed between the ends of the bones and pinched in. But then what prevents it self from being pressed into the joint on the lower side? It is prevented by the tension of the muscles in action, which being fixed to the ligament draws it out of the way at the time the joint moves, and it is sometimes forced between the bones by evanental violence.

The Ligaments

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Besides the Capsular Ligament before examined, a joint has corroborating or lateral Ligaments. The Capsular Ligament is of the same strength & thickness all round. In the hinge joint to bind the bones together more firmly there is a Ligament placed on the sides, where the ends of the bones do not recede much from each other, in Flexion and Extension as on the sides of the Elbow joint. In the three joints there are Ligaments arising from the Middle of the bones, where there is a deep notch in their hinder part, which being on the outside in Extension set bounds to the Motion, & prevent the Legs from going farther than to form a straight line with the Thigh, for there is nothing in the Joint of the Os Femoris, Tibia, Fibula and Patella to stop Extension. Ligaments & Tendons have no elastic property, for if they had they would recede from each other, and as Tendons being inelastic Substances are often ruptured, so are the Ligaments from violent exertion, as Leaping, Dancing &c. Indeed there is one which has the property of being elastic, the Ligamentous Substance between all the Vertebrae, which we shall take particular notice of hereafter. Till within these few years Tendons & Ligaments were supposed to be exquisitely sensible, Dr Hunter says, that from observing that the Ligaments, Tendons, Dura Mater, & Pia MATER appeared to be entirely similar in texture, he was induced to believe, that they were all equally sensible, or insensible, that from observing an incision of the Dura Mater gave no pain, that the Pia Mater which escaped in Amputation gave no pain, that the Tendons of a man's hand which were laid bare by an Hangman gave no pain when pressed on, & from several other observations of the same kind, he first began to doubt of their sensibility. A Gentleman whose Tendons Achilles was almost ruptured through by different parcels of its fibres giving way at different times, informed him that at the time he felt no pain, only a sensation as if something had given way in his Heel. From many observations which he has since made, his thoroughly

The Ligaments

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thoroughly convinced of their insensibility, or at least that they enjoy Sensibility in a very low degree. Bleeding in the arm is sometimes attended with great pain and very alarming Symptoms; This was accounted for by saying that the tendon was wounded in the operation, that the great pain caused by a partial division of the tendon arose from the remaining fibres that were entire having their extreme sensibility increased by being put on the stretch, and therefore they advised dividing the tendon entirely to take off their sensation. But Dr Hunter says all those alarming Symptoms are generally the consequence of the nerve being pinched and not the tendon. — Hales by taking experiments has proved the insensibility of those parts, but he attributed too much to insensibility, thinking that wounds of these parts would heal as soon as any, as gently as others. — But this is contradicted by daily experience, for most terrible consequences often ensue from wounding them, and sometimes Death. — A number of parts about a joint appear to be exceedingly sensible, at least we imagine so from the great pain in sprain & inflammation. — It seems probable therefore, that they have a very small degree of Sensibility, which is exceedingly increased by inflammation, or otherwise; that parts may have an increased sensibility, where naturally they have but little, is evident, for when the hand is warm, if we wrap our knuckles against any thing gently it will produce no uneasiness; but when the hand is very cold, if we then wrap them with the same force, it will be very painful. — The reason, why inflammation of the joint is so very painful, is probably owing to the parts about a joint being so much confined by their situation & situation that they can distend or swell them close but very little. — This is the reason why a Whistle of the fingers is more troublesome to a patient, than an inflammation on the arm, the Skin in the latter allowing more room for Distension than the former.

Luxation.

We come,

Lucations

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We come next to speak of Luxations. It was the general doctrine that when a bone was luxated, that the Capsular Ligament stretched, dilated, before the head of the bone, but upon examining the Capsular Ligament in a dead Subject, one would conclude a priori, that it is too strong & tight to admit of a Luxation from external force without being ruptured. D'Heudet says he believes that the Capsular Ligament is always torn, for he has several times attempted to luxate the Humerus & Femur in a dead Subject, but never could effect it without tearing thro' the Capsular Ligament. These trials he thinks are conclusive, because muscular force acts exactly the same on the Dead as on the living Subject. He says the Phenomena of Luxations prove this Theory; sometimes a dislocated bone is reduced with great ease, at other times not without great difficulty. This difference was accounted for by supposing that in the first case, the Muscles made little or no assistance to the Reduction, but that in the second, they contracted strongly, so as to require great force to overcome their action: It is clear however, that the Muscles do not contract so much as to counteract us in making Reduction; when the Patient gives himself up entirely to our Reduction. The difficulty then consists of reducing a luxated Bone in the smallness of the aperture of the Capsular Ligament by the direction in which it is ruptured so that sometimes by making a strong Extension we shall be so far from reducing the Luxation, as even to render it impossible to be performed in that manner. After having used all manner of Extension and means of Reduction to no purpose, it sometimes happens that the bone goes into its place voluntarily, as it were. D'Heudet says, that the torn Ligament embraces the head of the bone as a Buttonhole does a Button, and prevents its return into the joint, and that by turning the Limb to and fro, there is a much better chance of saving the Luxation.

Lucation by wriggling the bone through again, than by making strong & tenacious which often tightens the structure, and increases the difficulty. It may sometimes happen that a disease of the joint may so relax the Capsular Ligament as to allow of Flexion without it being torn, but when the Lucation happens from external force, Dr. Hunter, believes that the Ligament is always torn. The reason why Fracture, or the Capsular Ligament does not occasion great mischief as a wound penetrating the joint does, is because no air is admitted to it. There is found in the cavity of all joints that have motion, a very fluid, by far the most lubricating of any known called Synovia, supposed to be secreted by glands called Slave's Glands situated in the joint. It was further said, that the number & size of these glands were adapted to the different motions of the joints, & that their secretion was promoted by pressure. The bulk of these substances are not glands but fat, we know this fat by the taste of it in boiled meat, which is very different from that of a gland, again in Dropical Subjects these substances are found to be only cellular membrane, filled with water. It appears then that the joint spaces of the joints are filled with fat, by the same laws of the Animal Economy, as the cellular membrane of bones are, besides in the cavity of the Shoulder joint which admits of large motion as of course requires, and has a great quantity of Synovia; we do not find the least appearance of this substance, because the joint is every where regular & without any cavity to contain it, which plainly proves that this supposed glandular body, does not furnish the Synovia. From the inner surface of the Capsular Ligament being extremely vascular, it is reasonable to suppose that this membrane is the secretory organ. It has been said, that the Synovia was a compound of water, but transuded from the bone thro' the Cartilage, but as it is evident, there is no transudation in the living body, this cannot be the way in

The Synovia &c.

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way in which the Synovia is made, it is most probably occasioned by the
Bursa ligament, however that be, it is exceeding well adapted to the purpose;
and in many cases it would be much better to dip the finger, or a wane
candle in Synovia rather than in oil, when they are to be introduced into
parts that are very irritable. Persons of Propheticus habit, are most
subject to diseases of the joints. In that disease of a joint called a White
Swelling, there is always a certain Dancy of Synovia, which when it out,
appears to be mixed with matter. Another way, there is sometimes a diffi-
culty of Synovia as when a joint crackles, also it may be too thin, or too
thick. These opinions appear reasonable, but we know not whether it is
only Theory, — Some have accounted for a limb becoming stiff, or its
remaining motionless for some time, as in a Fracture, by supposing that
the Synovia has a tendency to concrete on Fracture, & that it was kept
in a fluid state by the frequent Motion of the joint. It has also been
said, that when a Bone has been dislocated for some time, the cavity of the
Joint is filled up with concreted Synovia, which makes the reduction impa-
ssible. Dr. Hunter says, he is very clear that Concretions of the Synovia
never happen, & that the reason why a bone, which has been long dislocated
cannot be reduced, is, because the surrounding flesh has been united
with the head of the bone. Chalybeate Concretions are very troublesome in
the joints of Old People. In one Case Dr. Hunter found the Synovia
white like cream occasioned by a Gravel Stone having been rubbed down
by the motion of the joint into a Powder, some of which being too gross to
remain suspended in the Synovia had fallen down to the most depending
part of the joint, & in this case the Cartilages are eroded.

Let us next consider the Bones as to their Number & Clusters. The
Number of the Bones differ in different People, & in different Ages: In a
young Animal there are more than in an old one, for instance, the
Femur, which in the Adult is but one Bone, is made of four in a
Child.

The Number & Classes of Bones

Childs. The bones like the joints cannot well be divided into distinct classes, because in fact they all differ one from another, & classification is at best but an idle thing. If we do class them, we shall, for the sake of referring to a set of bones divide them into four kinds with regard to Structure. First, the cylindrical, or those which are nearly so, with their Apophyses, & Epiphyses made large at the ends to allow a greater Surface for articulation & the insertion of Muscles. The Middle of these bones are the smaller part of them, but they contain a much greater quantity of bony matter, which adds considerably to their strength in that part. The Second, the Spherical such as the Patella, Bones of the Canines of Dogs or the outside hard like a Shell, and spongy within. The Third, flat as the Ilium & Bones of the Shell with hard compact Plates on each side, & a spongy texture between them called Δ iplo & Omiditellum. The fourth, the irregular bones, those which partake the properties of the others three, such as the Vertebra, the Bones of the Hand, & others. In the latter we find that the Muscles, & tendons, & all the fleshy parts appear distinct, tho' exceeding small, & of very tender texture, therefore we shall not enquire how they are formed, but with the bones it is very different, & therefore it shall be the subject of our subsequent Lecture to treat of them.

The Formation of Bones

Lecture 15th

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We are now come to the last part of the general Lectures, that is, Osteology or the Formation of Bones. We shall begin with the Claps of Head Bones, & particularly the bones of the Skull, not however those that form the Basis of the Skull, the first appearance of Ossification in these bones is in the Center, and work of fine bony threads is formed, the strongest of which are disposed in a Radiated manner from Center to Circumference, and bound together by transverse fibres of bone, these increase daily, while Ossification is going on, the part is increasing vascular the vessels filling up the interstices of the fibres & of course following their direction.

In these it is plain, bones are originally made up of fibres, these fibres compose plates, and the plates added to one another form the strength of the bone, the plates lying over one another like the slates of an Oyster, the lower one projecting beyond that which is above it. This is a question with regard to the Theory of Ossification, is this, whether or not, there is a cartilage all round the little bony fibres while they are growing? that is, whether the bones are previously in a Cartilaginous state? Albini thinks there is, tho' saying this ab to be overlooked. There seem, however, to be nothing like a cartilage, for the bones of the skull appear too short in a membrane, as Dr. Vesalius thinks, with regard to the Pneustem of the bones of the skull, they seem to have it independent of tendon or ligament, it is laid in layers like a gradual compres, and seems to be formed from the bone itself, for by examining it we find, as the plates of bone are formed, they destroy the inner lamina of the pneustem, and the laminae are soon continued at the edge of the growing plates. When these bones are first formed, and then, there is no

midstullium

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medullary, but as they increase, grow thicker the medullary app-
eases, the process by which this is brought about we are not acquainted
with. The next to be considered are the cylindrical Bones. These
Bones appear to be previously gristle covered with a periosteum,
very loosely connected with it; this can only be seen in the incubated
egg, which was very particularly examined by Hales in all its states.
He says, the gristle is covered by a periosteum, called in this part Perioste-
odium, and that it is not attached to the gristle; in this he appears to
be mistaken, for the periosteum is adherent to the gristle. This we are
convinced of by being able to trace the vessels passing from one to the
other. The first appearance of Bone is in the Middle, first, a
clod appears in the substance of the gristle, which increases, and
hardens daily into bone. At this clod the bony particles may be
felt with the points of a fine needle. This ossification shoots forth
farther from the Middle, till both ends are formed. This first appearance
of ossification is only to be seen early in the Fetus, in the Thigh bones,
Tibia, &c. All the cylindrical bones appear to be formed in this manner.
The periosteum of these bones may be divided into laminae, & appears to
be entirely similar to that in the flat bones. It has been the common
opinion, that ossification in these bones is first formed of fibres & plates,
in the bones of the skull, but we can never see any appearance of
fibres. The bony particles shooting into a very irregular spongey body,
not detached but close in. As the bone shoots from the Middle towards
the Extremities, the cartilage becomes shorter & shorter, and while this
is going on a new ossification begins at the very end of the gristle
at the ends, & makes the Epiphyses. The ossification is perfect in
the very centre of the gristle first, & becomes larger & larger shooting
qua quaeversus. The body of the bone & epiphysis have but a thin
gristle between them, so that in boiling they separate, but as the bones
grow in

The Formation of Bones

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grow in the Adult this Gristle is illustrated, & the two Ossifications remain united very firmly: One would think from its hardness that a Bone would not alter its figure, but it does both in length & thickness, now the Question is, as the body increases in bulk, are the Fibres of a bone lengthened out, or is there a new Addition or continuation of bony matter joined to them? It seems to be by an Addition to the end of each fibre, & by its stretching too like the shoot of a Tree. Dr Hales says that like the shoot of a Tree they grow least in the middle & most at the ends, but Mr John Hunter says, they lengthen as much in the middle as at the ends. Then it may be asked, how do the bones increase in thickness? This appears to be produced by the fibres having some subtlety & elasticity. The layer of Epiphysis is being formed distinct from the body of the Bone has not yet been explained. Various are the uses they have been supposed to serve: Some have thought that their use was to confine the growth of the bones within proper bounds; but we may then ask, what with bounds to their growth besides, for it is only some bones which have them: another opinion, & foolish enough I was then to consider Ligament by running between the body of the Bone & Epiphysis might be more firmly united: It is sufficient to say that it does not go in between them, but runs on the surface down the bone. Another supposed use was that they made a kind of Joint to facilitate the birth of the Child, & prevent the bones from being fractured; but the ends of the bones at Birth are, rightly, & capable of being bent considerably. Albinus's Doctrine appears most plausible, he says that in the long projected Cylindrical bones, Nature with up two Ossifications to perfect the bone sooner, & because the ends are to be larger & projecting that the new Ossification will form them no much better than the first, but for ought we know to the contrary, the first Ossification would have done just

The Formation of Bones

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done just as well, this we have never yet been clearly made out. Birds have no Epiphyses, the bones of their Wings are hollow, but contain no marrow, and Mr. John Hunter has discovered that they have a communication with the lungs in Respiration, for air blown into them will inflate the lungs — Ossification begins in the center of the Sphenoidal Bones, they are at first nothing but Cartilage, & as the Ossification advances, they appear to be exceedingly vascular. It is very observable that in those bones a branching artery first begins to ossify in the middle of the Gristly Substance, putting on the appearance of a branch of a canal. The Ossification of the irregular bones put on different appearances in several parts of the same bone; the whole is at first Cartilage having Ossification beginning in several parts, as in the Os Ilium: in which there are distinct Ossifications forming the Ilium, Isium & Pubis, and in the Vertebra there are four points of Ossification surrounding the Canal for the Spinal Nerves, one on the fore part, one on the back part on the Spinal Process, & one on each transverse Process. In bones of considerable extent having several points of Ossification we see great Variety in their number, as the Breast Bone for instance is sometimes composed of four, sometimes of five, & sometimes of six distinct bones; Ossification proceed differently in different Convolutions & in different bones, some bones are always completely ossified at birth, for instance the ribs and little bones of the ears; others remain unossified for years: The Patella seems to be the last in which Ossification begins. In the next place we are to consider the Theory of Ossification. This was accounted for by saying, that every part of our body has a tendency to grow hard; that a bone is at first a fluid, next a jelly, next a Gristle, & next becomes bone; Ruyck made a great noise about this at one time. It was then said that the Action of the Muscles and of the Vis Viva in general condensed the soft substance into bone, and that the Action of the Utteries assisted in condensing them, but numerous Observations teaches that it is not

proper,

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pressure, which converts the Cartilages into Bone, something more is required towards Ossification. Others have said that Gristle was converted into bone by a Deposition of earthy Particles into its pores, and becomes stony, and as a proof of this they say, if a Bone is steeped in an Acid, it becomes soft from the Acid dissolving all the Earthy Matter & leaving the Bone in its Cartilaginous state; that the Earthy Matter is dissolved by the Acid is plain, for if an Alkali be added to the Solution the Earth will be precipitated in a fine powder. This is one of the most general Opinions among the Moderns. Another opinion is that of Dr. Harrel, or rather taken from Dr. Grew, who in his Anatomy of Plants says, that a layer of wood is produced from the Bark of a Tree yearly, so that when the Trunk is cut transversely, it makes a concentric Surface, that the Bark was converted into Wood, & that by the number of these layers the age of a Tree might be known. Dr. Harrel made a number of Experiments to prove that bone is formed by the Addition of hardened Laminae of Gristle run into Ossification, as the Wood is formed of Bark, & said that the Callus was formed in the same manner. This theory tho' ingenious, cannot possibly be true, because we observe that Ossification begins in the middle of internal parts of the Spheroidal Bones. Dr. Newbitt's Theory seems to be most plausible, and best founded, it was first published about 50 years ago; Haller hardly mentions it, as Albinus not at all; because Dr. Newbitt took his opinion from Albinus, and published it as his own; He says that Bone is a new Substance, and not a Gristle changed into bone, & that the manner of its production is two fold, in some parts that the Bones spontaneously grow in Membranous beds, as the bones of the Skull and the Teeth; in others the bone is formed as in a bed of Gristle, an Argument for the bone being a new substance is, that where the bone is found in Gristle, there are manifestly two different substances, and may be separated at the Epiphyses. It might be said that the fibers of the Cartilage

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Cartilage are continued from one end of a bone to the other, & that the bony trabecles are deposited round them; but the Epiphysis is easily separated from a bone, without the least appearance of a gristle breaking, and by long steeping that part of the bone which is ossified, it may be taken out of the middle of the gristle, like a kernel from its shell, and after steeping a bone & pulling off the periosteum to clean it, the gristle separates with the least possible force; the bony part too is extremely vascular but the vessels terminate abruptly when the gristle begins. This seems to be the best Theory, that Bone is a new formed Substance; there is one thing which may seem to be an objection to it. We may ask, if Bone is a new formed Substance, what is that which remains, beyond the steeping of a bone in an acid so as to dissolve all its earthly Particles? It is not gristle, ^{but} it may be said to be the skeleton of a bone, composed of vessels & skeleton connecting these particles together. We have now done with the general Lectures on the Constituent parts of the body, and shall next proceed to the particular Anatomy of the parts beginning with the bones. According to Dr. Hewitt, Bones may be said to have their seeds, that the seeds of the bones which form the bulk of the skull are deposited in a Membrane bed composed on the inside of the Dura Mater, and the outside of the Periosteum, and that in all other parts of the body the seeds of the bones are deposited in beds of gristle, and that no bones appear to shoot in a fibrous manner, but those that form the bulk of the skull.

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For describing particular bones we make use of the Skeleton, which is of two kinds Natural and Artificial: When a Skeleton is prepared with the Ligaments & Cartilages remaining, and connecting the bones together, it is called a Natural one: if in the preparation the bones are connected together by Art, as by wire, it is then called an Artificial Skeleton.

The most common order of demonstrating the bones is to begin with the Head, and so proceed downwards to the Feet, but this is a bad method, because the bones of the Head are the hardest to be understood, besides we consider the Head as an extreme part of the body; it is better therefore to begin with the Basis of the Whole, and as the first natural state of the body seems to be sitting or lying, the Trunk at first view will appear to be the Basis; we will therefore begin with the Trunk: — The Trunk naturally divides itself into an upper, and a lower part, the Chest is the upper connected together by a Bone chain called the Spine, as the Spine forms the principal part we shall describe that first. The Spine runs the whole length of the Trunk, from the head to a little below the Anus, it is composed of the Sacrum, the Os Coccyx is, & twenty four Vertebrae. The Spine in a well formed body appears to grow up perfectly straight, if examined in a fore, or back view it makes several curvatures. The reason why the head appears to be turned downwards, is, because we are commonly employed in looking at something below the level of the eye. The Spine may be said to resemble two unequal Pyramids joined at their Bases, the Vertebra forming one, and the Os Sacrum & Os Coccyx the other, & it is given us with this intention; first, to be a chain of bones connecting all the parts of the body together, & when in an erect posture the whole are perpendicular pillars, the principal strength being in the fore part. — Secondly,

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Secondly, by being formed in different pieces it allows the body while the processes of the different Vertebrae serve for convenient attachment to young muscles; Thirdly, it serves to protect the Spinal Marrow, the least touch of which in the truth causes immediate Death. It will not be necessary to describe every constituent bone, for by giving a general description of one, we shall in a great measure comprehend the whole. In each Vertebra, we may remark first, that the body of it makes the Pillar for support; next that it has one Spinal, two transverse, and four Oblique or Articular Processes with a hole between the body of the Spinal Process, for the passage of the Spinal Marrow. On the sides of the body of each Vertebra at the root of each transverse Process there is a foramen which forms with the Process of the Vertebra above it a hole, that communicates with the great Medullary Canal thro' which passes a pair of Nerves. These holes in the Spine are called the Lateral holes. The bodies of the Vertebra have a Ligamentous Substance on their upper and under Surface to unite them to one another, this is composed of concentric fibres hard on the outside, & almost gelatinous within. The Articular Processes make a moveable joint, and are therefore tipped with a small Cartilage where they touch. The Roots of the Spinal Processes are connected together by an Elastic Ligament similar to white leather. These in general have but little motion: the twisting motion of the spine is greatest where the Vertebrae are largest: the turning and twisting of the neck is only that of the Head. We shall here make a few Reflections on Ligaments. That ligament between the bodies of the Vertebrae, is not Elastic. But behind these are Elastic Ligaments between the spinal Processes. These Elastic Ligaments in some measure serve the purpose of keeping the body upright, for without muscular action the body bends forwards by its own gravity, so that these ligaments serve to

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serve to assist the muscles, because all the voluntary muscles soon tire when in action, and when fatigued & relaxed, the body would fall forwards, but those elastic ligaments prevent it, till the muscles acquire power, and by being elastic they do not hinder the bending of the body by the skeleton. Nature has provided elastic ligaments to keep up the talons of a lion, Tyger, Cat, & other Quadrupeds of this kind to keep their points from being runaway. These ligaments are stretched along the upper part of the bones of the legs to keep the talons drawn up in the sheaths, when the creature does not mean to use them, they are a great deal of muscular action we have considered the Vertebra in general, & now we will consider the peculiarities. The Vertebra are twenty four in number & we divide them into three classes, seven Cervical, twelve Dorsal, & five Lumbar & we may observe of the Lumbar Vertebra, that the greatest breadth of their bodies is from side to side, that Spinal Processes are almost horizontally, the upper edge being thinner than the under, their transverse processes are long & slender, the Middle Vertebra has the longest of all, all the lower Oblique Processes articulate with the upper, the hole for the medulla spinalis in these Vertebra is triangular, the bodies of the Vertebra of the Back project forward, wherefore they are broadest from the fore to the back part, & there is a notch on each side where the ribs are articulated, which distinguishes them from the Lumbar & Cervical, that Spinal Processes are long & pointed downwards, the transverse are the strongest of all in this species have a cartilage on their end where the ribs are articulated, except the two lower ones, which have hardly any transverse process, the Articular or Oblique Processes have nothing particular in them, the canal for the spinal marrow is small, & round. The Vertebra of the neck are the smallest, their bodies project very little forward, hardly beyond the transverse processes, and are flattened

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Flattened on the fore part, the principal length then is from side to side, the surface of each Vertebra is concaved, at the bottom, & hollow at the top, these Spin^{al} Processes are short and end in two points; each of the transverse Processes except perhaps of the lower Vertebra, has a hole for the Vertebral or Cervical Artery (principally) to go up to the Skull, the Medullary Canal is triangular as in the lumbar. The two last or upper Vertebrae of the neck are different from the others, & deserve particular Attention. The lower of the two called Vertebra Dentata from a tooth-like Process in its upper & fore part, round which the Head moves by means of the Atlas in the Rotatory Motion, that part of the Process which abuts upon the Atlas, is covered with a smooth Cartilage, the Spin^{al} Process is remarkably long, & stronger than in the other Cervical for the convenient Attachment of Muscles that turn the head from one side to another, the oblique or Articular Processes are two round Convex Surfaces, which allow the Atlas to move about on them. The last or upper Vertebra of the neck is very little more than a Bony ring, having as it were a double Canal, the interior part of the Canal receives the tooth-like Process; the spinal marrow passes down the posterior, a very strong Ligament divides the two to prevent the tooth-like Process from pressing on the spinal marrow, for should the Process be dislocated & press upon the spinal marrow, it causes immediate Death; (If an arrow be run into the spinal marrow at this part it kills without a Con-
viction.) That part of the Atlas which plays upon the Process Dentatus has a Cartilaginous Surface, & its spinal Process is very small, & cannot be felt in the living Subject, the transverse processes are larger than in the other Cervical Vertebra to allow convenient Attachment to several Muscles, in Anatomy to observe that the Spine is exceedingly well adapted as a Pillar of Support to the body, it is a fine Composition of Strength & Flexibility, made up of a number of joints; many have supposed that there are so many Vertebra that the spinal marrow might not be bent too much in the several Motions of the body, which must have been the case, had

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case, had there been only two or three, but we may observe that where the Spinal Marrow is most important, as in the Neck, it is most bent, at least bent where it is least important as in the Loins; the true reason appears to be to make the Back the strongest, for joints are always weak in proportion to the largeness of their motion. The Spine is often found very crooked, & this has been accounted for very differently by different Authors. Hales, & Du Hamel, & Glipon say, that from some unknown cause the Bone grows thicker on one side than on the other, which must of course throw the body away. Marques, who was of opinion that the Muscles of the body were always in action to keep up an Equilibrium, says, that from a weakness of the Muscles on one side, the Trunk is drawn to the other by the prevailing ones, & thus the Muscles were the cause of a distorted Spine. Of this, we have shown, evidently depends on Earthy or bony Matter being produced in the Habit, but in some constitutions the bones are too soft, as in the Rickets, from a deficiency of the Osseous Matter. Now when bones are too soft to support the weight of the Spine, what must be the consequence? If the Spine was to be kept always in an erect & perpendicular posture, the consequence would be, the body could not grow to its proper height, because the Vertebrae would be flattened, but in general the weight of the body presses more on one side than the other, and the bones being easily bent when soft, take a Curve, and from the Osseous matter being angular on one side, but by the pressure on the Spine from above, for where the pressure is the greatest, the Vertebrae will give way most, & if we examine crooked Spines, we shall find, that on the concave side, part of the bony matter has been actually pressed out, forming several little bony knobs.

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Lecture, 17th

When once a Curve is formed in this soft state of the Bones, it increases commonly very fast; if the spine is curved in any considerable degree, it becomes curved in another place also, one hip being higher than the other; the reason of this is because when we move the body, we are always obliged to bring the Pelvis to the center of Gravity, so that when a spine is much distorted, we always find two Curvatures at least. It may be asked at what time of life does this Curvature begin in the spine? In general not very early in life; in Ricketsy Subjects it frequently does not begin to bend till after they are ten years old, as sometimes not before their eighteenth year; though perhaps their Legs are growing crooked all that time. Dr. Hunter says, the reason why the curvature of the spine does not begin sooner is, because the Cartilages do not ossify till late in life, & the Cartilages cannot be bent to that form, so that the most crooked Persons are always born straight. Children are often born with a kind of fullness or small swelling but of the ribs on one side more than the other, but this is a thing of no consequence, we may be pretty certain it will not increase. The first symptom of Rickets is an enlargement of the lower end of the Ulnary Radius, particularly of the latter; they become very strongly and the anterior bone ends when they join the Cartilage, swelling from knobs: the Tibia is commonly the first bone that bends; every appearance in these cases is easily accounted for, the softness of the bones, & the pressure made on them. The best method to prevent crooked Spines is to strengthen the Constitution, to effect this no remedy is equal to cold bathing, especially if the water is very cold. Children of Ricketsy Habits may be used to it very soon, they should continue in the water but a very little time, only an entire dip and out again, afterwards they should be well dried & rubbed. Such Children have often slight cutaneous eruptions, but this does not forbid

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Described the use of the Cold Bath — when the spine is much bent, it can be of little service; but by tracing the habit we may perhaps prevent the disease from growing worse. Lying in an Horizontal posture should be used as much as conveniently can, & when up the Patient should sit in a Chair which has a branch & collar fixed to it to suspend the head, & keep off pressure as much as possible. Another kind of Convexation is when from a softening of the bones, the spine bends in a Spondyliform, such persons are commonly very weak in their Limbs, this is called Paralytic but when the Convexion shoots in an Angle as is sometimes the Case, (as is supposed to be owing to the spine being broken or injured) tho' it commonly attacks young Persons from a Scolopuleus Case, (the Paley of the lower extremities) is the consequence beginning gradually with a numbness & weight of the Legs, and this generally before any Bunch is observed on the Back; it is sometimes caused by a blow on the spine, sometimes from an abrupt destroying part of the body of one or more of the Vertebrae — If we are consulted upon a Case where there is a numbness or Weakness in both Legs, we may certainly conclude that the injury is not in the Legs, but in the spine, and we should carefully examine the Patient to see whether a Vertebra has started, which is a Case that happens more frequently than is generally imagined; indeed when known we can do but very little; it will however be proper to make the Patient lie as much as conveniently can be done to take off the pressure. Commonly we have 24 Vertebrae; sometimes tho' very rarely there is a Supernumerary One. It was some year ago observed, that a man is not so tall at night as in a Morning, and this was accounted for by saying the Cartilages between the Vertebrae were pressed closer together in the daytime by the weight of the body, which being removed the effects were taken off by lying in

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lying in an horizontal position, they expand towards the morning &c
renders the body taller, but several little circumstances will also contribute
to produce this Effect; the Cartilages of the joints of the lower Extremities,
by being continually pressed during the day, may have some of their Elastic-
ity destroyed, & their fibres made to lie closer, which purpose being
removed by lying in Bed during the night, the Cartilages may resume
this Elasticity & form thickness. Another circumstance is this;
The fleshy part of the Top of the Head, & sole of the Foot are thickened during
sleeping horizontally, by the blood flowing to them in a greater quantity
at that time; All these circumstances concur to to make
us a little taller in the Morning than in the Evening. We now come
to consider the lower part of the Spine, the Pelvis. This is a strong
irregular Circular bone making the lower part of the Trunk, hollow
on the inside; the great use of this part of the body is to make a
fixed point for the Attachment of very many Muscles, and to support
the body in sitting and standing. Therefore the bones go all round.
These Bones go downwards in three parts making three notches;
this then the great Sciatic nerve ^{down to the Thigh} passes in the Anterior notch. The
Part of Generation lies; the two Sides notches are called the great
Sciatic notches. We call that the cavity of the Pelvis which reaches
downwards from the Os Pubis before, and upper part of the Os Sacrum
behind; all above it belongs to the general cavity of the Abdomen; therefore
the Bowels form an angle in passing from one to the other.
The Pelvis is made of three pieces, scarcely separated from one another;
behind is the Os Sacrum and Os Coccygis which together form one
Triangular bone, and on each side of this are the Ossa Iliomandibula,
meeting before and firmly adhering. Thirdly, the Sacrum is something
like the

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like the Vertebrae, it has holes for Nerves, Spinal, Tranverse, & Oblique, Receptives, and Bodies evidently distinguished by ridges on its inside; it has commonly four pair of Foramina, sometimes five; thro' the Undermost Foramina the Nerves pass that make the great Sciatic, but the use of those behind is not so clear, as there is no principal Nerve passing thro' them. The Connection between the last Vertebra of the Loins, and the Sacrum is the same as that of the other Vertebrae with one another. The Os Coccygis is of a very Spongy Nature, so that it is frequently destroyed by boiling the bones; it may be said to be composed of four bones which have some motion in young Subjects: we may observe great Varietie in different bodies; most of a Person are generally composed of five bones; sometimes they have Six, and the Os Coccygis has but three. Dr. Paul in the introductory Surface to his Translation of the Coran, says, that Mahomet taught that all the body of a man was reduced to Dust except the Os Coccygis, which is preserved as a Leaven to make a new body, & that it never dies; in Quadrupeds it is continued to form the Tail, or Cypus, or Boenugarius Cypurus; as he is called, in the year 1520 wrote a Comment upon the Book of Munderus, which was held in the greatest Reputation by himself and others as mentioned in the Introduction; he says that in far distant western Islands (he lived in Italy) there is a People called Hiberni, with long Tails, two of whom he had seen, but as he had not handled them he could not tell whether the Substance of the Tail was Cartilaginous, Fleshy, or otherwise, and Linneus at this present time thinks that some of the Human Race have Tails, for instance, the Bœnian Portugals at the time of Harvey a story of this kind

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kind was believed by him; he tells us that a Surgeon returning from the East Indies, a man of strictness informed him, that he saw a young female taken from the Woods in the Island Borneo, who had a long tail, but it is very certain among the Human Species there is nothing of this kind. Diodorus Siculus tells us of a voyage undertaken on consequence of a Dream to find out very rich things; the Voyager after the third day's sail came to an island where the People were different from themselves, (Egyptians) they had tails reaching so long down on each side, and so broad, that they served as a Bed and Lanning, when they reclined on either side, and they were Cloven or Double tongued, so that they could hold conversation with two Persons at the same time. However the Authors of these Stories are suspected, they are nothing more than flagrant Impositions upon the Credibility of Mankind. By Commerce we not only acquire a great stock of useful learning, but get rid of many Prejudices which we imbibe when young. It has been said that the Procidentia Ani was owing to a Distressed State of the Os Coccygis, but it is not, it is an excrescence of the Pelvis. The Os Innominatum is originally made up of three pieces, called the Os Ischiium, Ilium, and Pubis. The Ilium makes part of the Acetabulum, and below it constitutes a part of the wall of the Pelvis, the forepart of the spine of the Ilium terminates in a Point called the Anterior Superior Spinal Process, and a little below this is another called the Anterior Inferior Spinal Process; on the hinder end of the spine there are said to be two Posterior Processes, but it is only a small notch in the Bone; the Ischiium forms a part of the Acetabulum, and every where is a part of the Pelvis, behind it has a small

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small Proces^ss directed towards the Sacrum, below this is the Tuberosity of the Ischium upon part of which we rest when sitting — Ligaments go from the Os Sacrum to the small Proces^ss and Tuberosity of the Ischium so as to inclose the Sacro Ischial Forch; between these Ligaments the Internal Obturator muscle passes and plays round the bone, as on a Pulley — The Os Pubis joins its fellow on the front part, at this Junction is called the Symphysis — It forms a part of the Ischiobulum and of the great Foramen, and composes part of the Walls of the Pelvis, where it forms the upper arch of the great Foramen it has a Forch for the Artery, Vein, and Nerve called the Obturator, on its upper Surface there is an hollowness over which Poupart's Ligament is stretched and forms a passage for the Cervical Vein, which runs down between the Pectenius, and unites Tendons of the Psoas and Iliacus Internus —

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The Foramen magnum is oval, just out and before the Tuberosity of the Jochum, it gives passage to the Obturator of Sterni and Recti, and the Obturator artery, vein, and nerve make a channel in the Superior Part. The Brain of the Acetabulum is not equally high all round, but is defective in time towards the great Foramen, & lower, and rather on the anterior part, which defect is supplied with a strong Ligament. The Acetabulum is supported by having a Cartilage raised round the Bony. The Bones of the Pelvis allow of little or no motion, and are firmly connected together by strong Ligaments, so the weight of the Abdominal contents might depress them. It has been said that the great Foramen was provided to suffer the little Trochanter to come near the Pelvis when we bring the Thigh to the Pubis, but it never approaches very near in any position we can put the Thigh in. We have now described the Spine and Pelvis, and shall in the next place make some general reflections on the latter. We can generally distinguish a Male from a Female Relation by the size and general strength of the bones; the Male bones are broader, thicker and stronger than the Female, and bear more evident marks of the print of the muscles, but as there are strong robust Women and small Men, we are liable to be sometimes deceived. The Chest of a Woman has been said to be flatter than a Man's because of the projection of the Breast, but this is rather Theoretical than from Observation. The Pelvis is the most certain mark, by which to distinguish the Sex of a Relation, but in this too we may be deceived; generally however

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however
the Cavity of the Pelvis in Females is of a rounder figure and broader, tho' some Men's have this Shape also, but the Appearance below is much more constant, the three points formed by the os Coccygis and osa Sacra, are much farther distant from each other in a Woman than in a Man, the anterior notch under the Pubis is much wider, and forms a much less acute angle, and the great Sciatic Notches are much larger in the Female, the final cause of this large Space of the Pelvis in a Woman is that these bones may be wide enough to let the Child pass thro' in Child birth, and they say that they open at the time of those pains we call Linding Pains; we cannot absolutely say, that it may not be so sometimes at the Symphysis of the Pubis, but they must open exceedingly little indeed, in examining many bodies, we shall scarce ever find a cavity in the joint of the Pubis, sometimes however it is found, and is mostly then the seat of Inflammation and Suppuration. A Woman had a large Collection of Matter in this part, which diffused itself all round the Pubis within and without, and at last killed her, the Symphysis and part of the Substance of the osa Pubis were destroyed, to relieve this Case, at first a depending Trifew should have been made with a Lancet under the Pubis just befor the Crestus Osteinarius internally, because on the out side of the Pubis there is much Skin and cellular Membrane, and besides the Trifew would not be depending, By force the osa Pubis may be divided at their Symphysis, as was the Case of a Gentleman at Worcester, he was a heavy man and by a sudden turn of his Horse his Thigh was drawn outwards, and by that means the Bones were torn asunder, and the Bladder ruptured, the Urine got into the cellular Membrane at the bottom

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bottom of the Pelvis, and so did. The Bones of the Pelvis may be destroyed in consequence of their being soft in the same manner as the Vertebra, and are most liable to it in women, who are by Nature weaker than men. The Distortion is made in this manner, towards the Pelvis the Vertebra of the Loins are convex, and the Sacrum is concave; now if the Bones are soft, the body pressing downward will bend the Lumbar Vertebra inwards towards the Pubis, which is the reason why the distance between the Spine and Pubis is so little in all misformed Pelvises:— the large Surfaces of the Ilium pressed upon by the Viscera force that part opposite to the Acetabulum inwards towards the Sacrum; the Os Coccygis is bent round and its point turned upwards, because in sitting and lying down the pressure bends the Os Coccygis, and bending the Sacrum to the point of the former is inverted. In sitting pressure is made upon the Tuberousities of the Ilium, and the middle part between them and the Pubis giving way, they are forced upwards, and inwards. From softness of the Bones and pressure all the distortions in the several parts of the Pelvis are easily accounted for; as the Bones in these cases are never of an equal softness, we may sometimes see very crooked Legs with a well formed Pelvis, and at another time a very distorted Pelvis with straight Legs. In the most common distortion of the Pelvis, it is made narrow from the Sacrum to the Pubis and the cavity of the Pelvis is largest on one side by the spine being forced away to the other, as mentioned in the Distorted Spine with a second Curve. The Bones do not open visibly to enlarge the cavity to let the head

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the Head of the Child passes in birth when it is very large - We might suppose that a Woman could not be delivered of a Child whose Head was larger than the Width of the Pelvis, but the bones of the Head are so formed as to give way to pressure, the head becomes narrower & longer, and passes after a few hours severe Labour; in such cases we should wait the Effects of Nature, and we shall be surprised to see what wonderfull things she can do: If not hurt by the hand or instruments a Woman will as certainly recover after three days strong severe Labour, as after three hours slight pains only before she is delivered: It is indeed sometimes necessary to pull the Child's Head away by pieces with the Instruments, where the Sacrum and Pelvis are so near one another, as not to give the least hope of the Child's Head being capable of passing down, and sometimes it has happened, that they are so very near as to hinder even this being done, and the only means then used is to save the Child at least by the Cesarean Section. In the case where Mr Thompson performed the Cesarean Operation, the passage between the Sacrum and Pelvis was but $\frac{7}{8}$ of an Inch wide, so that it would have been fruitless, if they had attempted to pull the Child away, wherefore the Operation was justifiable. We come next to the Bones forming the Thorax or Chest, which was so called because it serves as a Box or Case to hold the Heart and Lungs. It dilates and contracts in Respiration, and serves as fixed points for attachment to many muscles; its Shape is conical the small end being uppermost and there is an aperture in the upper part, thro' which the Oesophagus, Trachea,

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Trachea, and Bloody parts of the Arms and Head pass. (The apparent Cavity of the Thorax contains some of the viscera of the Abdomen.) The Thorax has on its front part the sternum, and on its sides the ribs. Their Description of these finishes the trunk. A Rib is a crooked Bone, running from the spine to the sternum, the posterior part is called the Head, tho' it is not round, it goes in between two Vertebrae with two surfaces for articulation with the Vertebrae; that part of the Rib which is more bent than the rest near its head is called the Angle of the rib; it gives attachment to the Sacro-lumbaris muscle, the upper edge is round and thick, the lower is made thin and sharp by a groove in which runs the intercostal artery, vein, and nerves. The ribs are divided into two classes; those whose cartilages immediately join the sternum, are called true ribs, and are seven in number; the other five whose cartilages do not immediately join the sternum, are called false, or bastard ribs. The spinae intercostalia are greater forward, than backward; the ribs run inclining downwards from the spine, and the lower ribs incline the most; the distance from the angle of the rib to the transverse process increases downwards. The anterior extremities of the bony part of the ribs recede farther from the middle line as they go downwards; excepting in the first rib where it is farther off than in the second and third, and of course this rib has a longer cartilager. Note, the cartilages and bony part of the ribs, run in different directions. The length of the ribs increases downwards to the eighth, and then decreases again; the first rib is the most crooked, and they become afterwards straighter, and straighter to the last. A peculiarity in the first is, that its flat sides are upwards and downwards, because it lays on the top of the lungs; the flat.

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The flat sides of the Ribs lay inward & outwards, so that the flat side of all the Ribs are next the lungs; The Subclavian Veins make two flattened Surfaces on the first Rib, where they pass over between it & the Clavicle, The Artery before and the Vein behind. The two last Ribs are articulated with the body of the Vertebra, and not with their Transverse Processes. Their Cristae are lost in the Flesh of the Abdomen. The Sternum is situated upwards and backwards, it is divided into three Bones, or Pieces; The first & second called the Sternum, and the lower one called the Xiphoid Cartilage; it is partly Bone, and partly Cartilage and runs down on the Muscles of the Belly; there are two Cavities on the upper part of the Sternum where the Clavicles are articulated. The second Rib has its Cartilage always inserted between the first & second bone of the Sternum. In opening the Thorax in a dead body, after having separated the Cartilages from the Ribs by cutting the Ligament and Periosteum, the inside of the Junction of the first and second bone, we can turn up the Sternum without the trouble of separating the Clavicles.

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Lecture 19th

The Motion of the Ribs and Sternum must be considered together; — they evidently serve for Respiration, and are moved by different Muscles; in proportion as the Ribs are raised the Sternum is raised also, and the cavity of the Chest enlarged; during this Motion the heads of the Ribs aditate a little on the bodies of the Vertebrae, and none of them have Epiphyses, which is somewhat remarkable; From the necessary Function of Respiration we see the reason why the Ribs of Children whose Mothers went their full time, are always ossified at birth; for that the Muscles might raise and depress the ribs, it was necessary they should be inflexible; If a Child is born before its proper time, the ribs sometimes are not perfectly ossified in a remarkable case of this kind Dr. Hunter mentions: a Child was born at six months, its ribs were cartilaginous and so soft, that the external Atmosphere pressed them inward in Respiration, by which means Respiration was so much disordered, as to occasion Death soon after. As the ribs sustain no weight, they would not in general grow deformed, but distortion of the Spine must affect them because they are articulated with each other; when a Spine is distorted the Ribs on the convex side run that from which the Spine is pressed are farther from each other than naturally they are, on the concave side they are squinched closer together, & on the convex side they are bent backwards & come over the bodies of the Vertebrae very near, indeed so as often to destroy that side of the cavity of the Thorax, and drove the lungs over to the other side, which greatly obstructs Respiration; the hump or the most projecting part of the back is commonly made by the Angle of the ribs, but sometimes it is made by the Vertebrae though we see the Angle of back of a woman very much

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very much distorted, yet we must not conclude immediately that the Pelvis is so too, and that if she is with Child the labour will be difficult; for it frequently happens that the Pelvis is well formed in such cases, the softness of the bones not being always general, but confined to some particular bone only; Almost all Distorted Persons seem to have a great length of Legs and Arms, because they originally proportioned to the height of the body would still have been so if the Vertebra had not been compressed; Crooked Persons are generally richly and short lived because the Viscera are compressed and greatly impeded in their functions. The high breast bone in a distorted Chest is occasioned most probably by the Heart's Action, pressing forward forward of room, Chevallier says, the ribs of Children may be depressed & broken inwards like a green stick without the broken ends being separated, by the hands of their Nurses in dancing them or hoisting them up on one hand, but in such cases Dr Hunter thinks there is always a gradual softness of the Bones. Binding of the ribs when fractured, or when Persons are Pleuritic must certainly give great Ease by obliging them to breathe with the Diaphragm alone, because the stretching of inflamed parts always gives great pain. It has been recommended to trypn the Sternum to let out matter when supposed to be collected in the Mediastinum, but this case never occurs so as to make this Operation necessary, for the bag of matter must be broader than the Sternum, so as to extend beyond its edge; else we cannot know that there is matter there, and when this is the case, it may be let out without hurting the Sternum; besides there is no cavity in the Mediastinum. It has been said that the Siphond Cartilage may be broken off from the Sternum.

Stomach, and that its point being turned inward, may occasion very bad Symptoms, but if it should be bent in, the pressure of the viscera will soon replace it, and no mischief will ensue. From these afflictions the bad effects of tight lacing are very obvious; the Chest will be pressed closer, and its contents forced downward, on those of the Abdomen, which likewise are compressed by the stays, so that Respiration must be greatly impeded, the consequence of which is more dangerous than commonly imagined. We have now gone thro' the Trunk, and shall next proceed to the Extremities.

The Bones of the Upper Extremity.

The Upper Extremity is composed of the Shoulder, the Arm, the Fore-Arm, and the Hand. The Shoulder is made up of two bones, the Clavicle forwards, and the Scapula backwards. The two surfaces of the Scapula are called Regions, the inner called the Subscapular, is covered with a large Muscle, called Subscapularis; the outer is divided by a large Spinal Process into two Regions, the upper called Supraspi-
nal, and the inner called Infraspi-
nal Region. The first is filled up by the Supraspinatus Muscle, the last by the Infraspinatus Muscle. The edge of the Spine gives origin to many Muscles. The edge of the Scapula all round has muscles attached to it, & at the upper end is a notch with a Ligament stretched across so as to make it a hole for the passage of an artery, a vein, and a nerve. The Glenoid Cavity is oval, and to afford strength to the joint the neck of the bone is made thick. The spine of the Scapula begins at the Basis, and runs on to form the Acromion immediately over the

Scapula.

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as Humerus: the Coracoid Process comes from the neck of the Bone, & goes round the fore & inner part of the joint. When we lift our arm above an Horizontal line the Scapula rotates on its Center. The Clavicle is somewhat of the form of an ⁸g stale Letter S, at the upper part of it, and near its middest, when it is articulated with the top of the Sternum, there is a considerable pit from whence a strong Ligament is stretched across to its fellow inwards & has the End articulated with the Scapula, it is flat upwards and downwards, and on the under side there is a Tuberosity from whence a Ligament goes to bind it to the Coracoid Process below. The great use of the Scapula and Clavicle is to allow a variety of motions to the Arms by their swinging loosely; no other bone but the Scapula (the Os Hyoides excepted) moves out of its place, and besides its moving forwards & backwards &c. it has a rotatory motion on its Center. The Use of the Clavicle is to keep out the head of the Scapula & give the joint a more advantageous situation for motion in the Human Subject. The common Quadrupeds have not it as the Dr. & Kepen Mr John Hunter finds, that those Quadrupeds which sit upon their hindre extremitie, & perform various motions with their fore feet have a Clavicle as Monkeys, Squirrels, & others of that kind, as the Clavicle is a very narrow bone, when it is fractured one end easily rides over the other end, to rectify this the Shoulders should be drawn back, and confined in that position. Between its Articular end and Sternum there is a movable Cartilage; to prevent Dislocation of the Clavicle Nature has provided two uncommon ligaments one running across to the Anterior end inwards from the Coracoid Process

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In considering the Humerus, & all the other bones of the Arm & Hand we shall suppose them placed so as that the Thumb be outwards, & that be not the most natural position of the Arm. When the Centers of the Cartilaginous surfaces of the Head and cavity coincide, the Arm is in a middle position, between its greatest elevation & lowest pitch. On the forepart the Head is divided by a groove into two protuberances, the inner for the Subscapularis muscle, & the outer for the short head of the Biceps. The groove receives the tendon of the long head of the Biceps. There are many protuberances & impressions of muscles on the bone; toward the lower end on the outside the surface is very broad & flat for the Brachioradialis, & on the inside for the Brachialis Anterior; at the outer condyle there is a roughness for the attachment of the Extensor muscles of the Fingers, and at the inner condyle for the Flexors of the Fingers. On the forepart there is a cavity for receiving the anterior process of the Ulna, on the back there is another for the posterior process of the same bone. That part of the bone on which the Ulna moves is called the Trochlea or Pulley; & that on which the Radius moves is called the small head. At the shoulder this bone performs all the different kinds of motion which should be very attentively considered, as the joint a Surgeon should have a thorough knowledge of, because it is greatly exposed to accidents. The Arm has not so much motion as it is commonly thought to have, great part of what appears to be proper to the arm being made by the Scapula. Dislocations of the Humerus are often very difficult to discover from other alterations in the part. Dr Hunter related the case of a man whose shoulder had been squashed between two carts. It was no easy matter to say what injury had been done.

The Bones of the Upper Extremity

been done to particular parts, but to find it out, he proceeded thus; I first said he felt for the Clavicle at the Sternum, then traced by degrees till he came to the Acromion, where he found the head of the bone not right, then from the Base of the Scapula I felt along the spinal process, & when he came just to the Acromion, there was plainly something amiss, the head of the Humerus was not only dislocated, but the Acromion was beat off from the Scapula and adhered to the end of the Clavicle sticking up in its right place, the Arm with the Scapula, being unsupported fell down, which attend the appearance of the Shoulder entirely, but by raising up the Arm the Case was easily discerned. By this mode of examining the Shoulder, the Drays, we shall hardly ever fail finding out the real state of the Case, for dividing the Capsular ligament of the Joint in the operation of Amputation, the Arm must not be turned upwards, because the ligament will then be carried under the Acromion out of our way, and we shall run a great risk in misusing the joint, but the arm should be held close to the side, and then it will be divided with exact certainty. The two great marks by which we know that the Humerus is dislocated are these; first the head of the Humerus cannot be felt at the Shoulder immediately under the Acromion, but in its stead there is a kind of Dent or cavity to be felt, Secondly the arm appears crooked as if broken in the middle because some of the Muscles are drawn out of their place, while the Deltoid Muscle keeps its own Line.

The Bones of the upper Extremity

Lecture 20th

In the fore arm there are two Bones the Ulna and Radius which are articulated with the Os Humeri. The Ulna is longer and larger than the Radius, It has at its upper end a long Process called the Olecranon, and on its fore part there is another called the Coronoid Process, between these Processors is the Articular Surface that joins with the Os Humeri; on the last side near the Coronoid Process is an hollow for the Radius to play in, down the outside of this Bone a ridge runs for the Attachment of the interosseous Ligament, at its lower and fore part there is a Ridge for the Attachment of the Pronator Quadratus; To examine the Ulna for a fracture we must trace the Bone from the Olecranon downwards and backwards as the Bone can be felt all the way in that direction, and not in any other, because on its fore part and sides it is covered with muscles.

The Radius is smaller than the former, its upper end which is articulated with the Humerus is called the Head, near this on the fore part (supposing a man laid before but the Thumb is outward in the Position of the Arm and the Palm of the Hand directly forward) is a Tuberosity for the Tendon of the Biceps, down the inside of this bone a sharp Edgeman corresponding with that of the Ulna for the Attachment of the interosseous Ligament, and the lower Part becomes flat for the Attachment of the Pronator Quadratus, on the hinder part of its lower end there are several Grooves which are found invariably the same in every subject, in these Grooves run the Different Tendons of the Thumb and Fingers. The Radius is articulated above to the Os Humeri, and below to the Os Capitale and Lunare Bones of the Cogpus.

The motion of the Radius at its upper end is round its axis and with its lower end it describes great part of a circle round the Ulna.

These

The Bones of the Upper Extremity

These bones make with the Wrist a Double Joint, which Nature has contrived to bring out a Variety of Motions. The fibres of the Interosseous Ligament run obliquely upward from the Ulna to the Radius, which is Admirably well contrived to prevent the Radius from being dislocated upwards. When we bind up a fractured limb, we should place it in a middle State between Flexion and Extension, and the Arm between Pronation and Supination; all the Extensor Muscles going to the hand arise from the Outer Condyle of the Humerus, all the Flexors from the inner condyle, that is, all those which go from the upper Part of the Arm, when the hand is supine they go obliquely downwards, when it is prone they go in a Direct Line downwards. The Hand consists of Carpis, Metacarpus, the Fingers and Thumb. The Wrist is composed of eight bones which together make a tolerable uniform concave surface behind, and before unevenly concave. The Ancients described these bones as making two Rows. The Os Scaphoideum and Lunare making an Oblong Head to join with the lower End of the Radius, next to these is the Cuneiform bone, which lies upon it internally the Pisiform bone; these four bones form the first rank; the second rank consists of the Trapezium to which the first bone of the Thumb is joined; next to these are the Trapezoides, Magnum, and Cuneiform Bones, to which the four Metacarpal Bones are joined; the Trapezium has a projecting part inwards, which with the Pisiform bone makes an hollow by means of a Ligament stretched from one to the other, called the Annular Ligament, under this Ligament the Tendons run to the hand. We should remember, that if we draw a Line in our minds from the Os Pisiforme to the Trapezoides, that we have the Axis of a Long Oval: Nature has furnished such a number of bones in this part to allow of a great quantity of motion.

The Metacarpus consists of four bones, the Thumb being considered as having no Metacarpal bone; The upper Ends of these bones are called

The Bones of the Upper Extremity

called their Bases, and have cartilaginous surfaces for moving on the Carpus backwards and forwards and a little laterally, their lower extremities called their heads are much the largest: the fore and middle metacarpal bones have but little motion, the other two have a great deal, the middle one being nearly the center of motion round which the other turns. The Fingers each of them consist of three bones & thickest at the joints; they project but little backward, but a great deal forwards. If we place the Fingers in their most natural state, that is half bent, the projection will be equal, their bodies are flat before, and round behind, because the Flexor tendons, which lay on their fore part are much stronger than the Extensors which run on their back part, which was necessary because the Fingers only act when bent. Their principal motions are those of Flexion, and Extension with a little lateral motion.

The ends of the last bones of the fingers are enlarged, and spongy for former attachment to the flesh that covers them; the same may be said of the last bone of the thumb. The Thumb has three bones, and is made stronger than the Fingers, because it is the Antagonist to them all. The Hand is an exceeding fine instrument expanding itself to a Plane, and contracting to a Ball and performs a great variety of motions. Its motions are combined with others; thus for instance to describe a circle with the end of the finger conveniently, we move the Finger, the Hand, the Wrist, the fore Arm, and the Arm, so that we see nature has not only adapted each joint to its own proper motion, but also made it subservient to the motion of others.

So much for the upper extremity, we proceed next to consider the Bones of the Lower Extremity; The Lower Extremity comprehends the thigh, Leg, and Foot.

The

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

The Thigh Bone or Femur is articulated with the side of the Pelvis. It was absolutely necessary it should have this position rather than being nearer the central line of the Body, because Room must be allowed for the attachment of very strong muscles to move it, and the Thigh bones are no farther apart than is necessary to lodge their muscles. When we stand with our feet together, the Thigh bones are situated obliquely to each other, and the lower surface of the Condyles on a horizontal line; the head of the bone is removed by the neck from the line of the body of it. It has a great articular surface to move in the Acetabulum, and points obliquely upwards and inwards; in the middle of the articular surface there is a pit for the ligament where there is no cartilaginous surface near the neck of this bone is the great and little trochanter, the first on the outside projects at the hip, and has the extensor muscles of the thigh attached to it, the second is on the inside and has the flexor muscles of the thigh attached to it; the body of the bone is pretty regular, on its back part from the trochanter downwards there is a rough line called the linea aspera, which at the lower part divides into two, one running to one Condyle, and one to the other. The head of the bone not being in a line with its body, in flexion and extension it only rotates, which oblique position of the head makes this joint difficult to be understood. When the bone is fractured at its neck, it is sometimes mistaken for a dislocation only, it is best distinguished by the grating of the fractured ends of the bone. In a dislocation of this bone from the Acetabulum, we must make extension by pulling in direction of the neck of the Bone, that is downwards, and outwards, this is particularly necessary to be observed when the head of the bone is

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

is thrown into the Groin and its neck rests upon the edge of the Pelvis. Dislocation at this Joint seldom happens, but when it does, the head of the bone may be found in every Part round the Acetabulum. It is exceedingly difficult to form a proper judgement in these Cases: We should attentively consider the Position of the leg in general, whether the Toes are turned inward or outward &c. A very common Deception in regard to Dislocation is when one Limb is shorter than the other; but we are not to consider the shortness of one Limb as a proof of Dislocation, for that may be owing to one Hip-bone being raised higher than the other. It may also be caused by a Humorous falling on the joint, and in this case there is often great Pain in the Knee, which has caused the Disease to be mistaken for an Affection of that particular part.

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

Lecture 21.

The weight of the body does not press directly on the body of the thigh bone, but on its head, so that if this bone be softened by the Rickets, the head of it will be pressed down sometimes as low as the trochanter, and the body of the bone being naturally curved forwards, it takes an incavation in that direction. Bones are weaker in proportion, as they are smaller, therefore when the thigh bone is fractured it is commonly about its middle. A question has been proposed, and chiefly by the French Surgeons, whether or not Amputation is practicable at the joint of the Hip? As to the possibility of performing the operation there dont seem to be much doubt, but the great loss of blood, and the great discharge which must necessarily ensue from so large a wound will make the operation generally fatal. The leg is made of three bones, the Tibia, Fibula, and Patella; The Fibula is situated outwards, and backwards, a process of it makes the outer ankle. The Tibia on its upper Articular Surface has a middle bipartite protuberance corresponding with the notch in the Femur, and behind there is a rough groove for the attachment of the Cross Ligament of the joint that sets bounds to its motion; below the Articular surface and on the forepart of the bone is a considerable protuberance for the attachment of the Patella by means of a strong Ligament. For Amputation we must saw off the bone below this part to avoid destroying the insertion of the Extensor of the Leg. The body of the bone has three surfaces, the inner one of these is

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

is the seat of the Nodes in the Venereal Disease; on the upper and hinder part is a Ridge for the Popliteus, and Solens Muscles; on the inside is a small dent for the Tibala, and at the lower end on the outside there is a concavity, for receiving the lower end of the Tibula. A process of this bone forms the inner ankle. The Patella may be considered as an appendage to the Tibia; the upper part of it is called the Basis, the lower the Apex; to the Basis are fixed all the Tendons of the Extensors of the Leg, to the Apex is attached the Ligament of the Tibia. The Joint of the Tibia with the Femur admits only of Flexion and Extension, except when the Leg is but half extended, for it has then a small rotatory motion; because when the Leg is quite extended, the Cross Ligaments behind are tight, and confine the bones strictly together, but when it is half bent the Ligaments are loose, and allow the bones to rotate a little. In a transverse fracture of the Patella the Basis was thought to be separated from the Apex by a dent of the Muscles, in the same manner as the Tendo Achillis is fractured. D'Hunter relates the case of a man who was passing thro' Holbourn with a Burthen on his head, and fell backwards, his Patella was fractured in the fall, tho' the knee did not touch the ground; this was supposed to be caused entirely by the action of the Muscles, but the true Reason is this, when the Leg is in a middle state between Flexion and Extension, the Patella rides on a transverse Cartilage, and so by any sudden jerk is snapped in the same manner as we break a stick across the knee. When the Patella is fractured, the cavity between the fractured end, and that of the Joint communicate.

The

The Bones of the Lower Extremity.

The Tibia is every where marked by muscles, which cover it in - the middle externally, ~~so as~~ to hide it from the feel, but at its ends it may be felt distinctly: at its lower end is a ridge externally for the tendon of the Peronaeus longus to run behind. In Subjects with soft Bones the Tibia and Fibula may from a variety of circumstances be crooked in any direction, but the former lying on the Tibia - rather behind, they are commonly curved forwards: just below the middle of the Tibia is the weakest part, where fractures most commonly happen and when the Bones are soft it first gives way at that part, but not till the Child begins to walk. The Foot like the Hand is composed of three parts, the Travers, Metatarsus and Toes. The most natural Position of the Foot is with the Toes directly forwards: the foot is hollow below, narrow behind, and broad forwards; between the heel and ball of the foot it forms an Arch, and the bones underneath are firmly bound together by Ligaments to keep the Arch from being pressed in; the use of the Arch is to secure the muscles, Tendons, nerves, and Blood Vessels from pressure, and make the foot much more stable, yet also prevents the Body from being so much jarred in Walking, Running &c as it otherwise would be. The Toes are pressed on when we walk, and in some measure support the body till we are quite fixed on the other Foot. The Travers is composed of seven bones, first the Astragalus (which forms the top of the Arch,) is adapted to the two Bones of the Leg above, below it is connected with the Os Calcis, and before to the Navicular. The Os Calcis has below and behind tuberosities for the attachment of muscles and Ligaments, at its very hinder part the Tendon Achillis is fixed, between which and the Astragalus there is a Space filled with fat, and on the outside of the Os Calcis there is

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

a Groove for the Tendon of the Pronator longus; the five other bones of the Tarsus make the Instep, and are connected together by strong Ligaments. Before the head of the Astralagus is the Gracilis, before the Os Calcis is the Os Cuboides: the other three are called the Os Cuneiformia, the Internal, Middle, and External: to the External of the Tendon of the Tibialis Anticus is attached, the other two are hardly seen in the Arch of the foot: All these bones have considerable Relation with one another, as those of the wrist have, and to the lower end of them the Metatarsal Bones are fixed. The Toes are no similar to Fingers that they need no particular description. — at the Root of the great Toe there is a Bump call'd the Ball of the great Toe, upon which we principally press in running, and walking: We call that the first Phalane of the Fingers and Toes, which is next to the Metacarpal or Metatarsal Bone.

The Astralagus has so much cartilaginous surface, that if a Caries attacks it, the Joint is almost inevitably lost. We observe that the Heel goes back considerably, which is to form the larger Arch, and allows more convenient attachment to the Muscles of the Calf of the Leg; in proportion as the Heels of the Shoes are high, we walk with greater advantage; Women who wear high Heels have always their feet distorted. The most natural Method of walking seems to be with the Toes directly darting forwards, as the Indians in America walk. As the Spine, Pelvis, and Bones of the lower Extremity support a weight, they are commonly bent when they are soft from a deficiency of the Osseous Matter, but as all Bones are not of an equal Degree, there is no one bone so certainly affected in this kind of Constitution, but that it sometimes retains its proper

The Bones of the Lower Extremity

shape when almost all the others are distorted. The Bones of the arms are seldom distorted, because they support no weight, but sometimes it happens from their being bent, that they — become crooked also. We have now finished the Trunk, and upper and lower Extremities, and shall next proceed to describe the last Part, the Head, which we consider as an Extremity —

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The Bones of the Head in General

Lecture 22

It has been the general method in demonstrating the bones of the Head to consider them separately, but this Dr. Hunter thinks is wrong; he says the Head may be compared to an House or Cabin to which there are several different Apartments, and who who takes an House to pieces to explain it? He proposes then first to consider the bones as they appear externally in their natural Situation, and afterwards by making use of different sections to shew their appearance internally. The Head is divided into two parts, the Skull, and the Face, and this last is subdivided into three, the Forehead, the upper and the lower jaw. The Cranium is of an uniform Figure, but its axis drops downwards, and backwards, so that if we conceive a line to be drawn horizontally forwards from the lowest part of the Axis, and another fall perpendicular on it from the fore part of the axis, these two lines with that of the axis will form a Triangle, in which is contained the bone of the Face. The Cranium is commonly divided into the upper part or Arch, and the lower part, or Basis: the most remarkable things to be observed in the Arch are first the Sutures or sutures, which are five in Number, the Coronal, Sagittal, Lambdoidal, and the two Sphenoidal; The Coronal Suture runs across the Head and terminates on each side near the most projecting part of the Orbit; it crosses the head it runs backwards. The Sagittal Suture runs from the most projecting Part of the Head to join the coronal suture, sometimes it is continued down the forehead where it is called

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called the Frontal. — We must next observe the five points in the Scull when it is more prominent than elsewhere, two on the forehead which in some measure give it its shape, one on each Parietal Bone, and one behind on the Occipital bone; these projections on the surface of the skull have been a long while accounted for by Mr John Hunter, who says that they are the first points where ossification began, retaining their original form of the Egomonts of a circle, while the other part of the bone expands into a larger from the ossification & growth quaqueversum till the whole is formed; accordingly we find that they are the central parts of the Bones; on each side of the skull laterally there is a semi-circular line, which shows the attachment of the Cottaphite or Temporal muscles. — These are the external appearances on the Arch of the Skul; we shall next take a view of the Basis externally, having first removed all the Bones of the Face. — The Basis is very uneven; just over the nose on each side of the forehead there is frequently a considerable projection, under which lies the Frontal Sinus, and at the upper part of the Orbit there is a ridge which continues laterally, unites with the Zygomatic Proces; a little farther back is the Zygomatic Proces beneath which Root is the Cavity for the Condyle of the lower jaw, behind the Condyle is the Meatus Auditivus, and behind this is a remarkable Proces going forward and downward, called the Mamillary Proces to which many muscles are attached; behind the Mamillary Proces is a ridge called the transverse Occipital ridge for the attachment of the muscles moving the head back-wards. — The Basis of the Skul naturally divides itself into three

The Bones of the Head in General

Three parts both internally and externally; The first comprehending so much as reaches from the eyebrow to the back part of the bone of the upper jaw; the second reaches from the termination of the first to the Mammillary process, and the third is all that part between the Mammillary process and the Occipital ridge. The middle part of the first portion forms the back part of the groove, the lateral parts to make part of the orbits, and backwards is a muscular surface for the attachment of the muscles of the lower jaw. The middle part of the Basis of the skull we shall divide into three parts, the middle and the two sides; in the middle lies the Coniform process of the Os Occipitis; in each of the lateral parts we may observe under the Tygomatic process an oblong cavity for the Condyle of the lower jaw and the greater audiitories, and behind this is the Styloïd process where the muscles of the tongue are attached, behind and without this process is the Mammillary or Trachoid, at the root of which posteriorly there is a groove where the Digastric muscle is attached; within this is a muscular surface for the attachment of the Pectoris lateralis and near this is the Occipital Condyle which is articulated with the Atlas. In this part are several Foramina, near the oblong cavity for the condyle of the lower jaw is the Foramen Ovale thro' which the nerves of the lower jaw pass; just behind this is another Foramen for the Carotid Artery; behind this is a large Foramen for the passage of the jugular vein, and on the inside of this is another for the eighth pair of nerves just over the Occipital Condyle; behind the Occipital Condyle is another for the Portio Dura of the seventh pair, and just by the Coniform process

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Process of the Occipital Bone is the Foramen lacerum, which is not an important part serving no particular purpose as we know of, as it is principally filled up with Cartilage; these Foramina are all contained within or formed by the Parv Petrosa of the Temporal Bone; just within the ear then there are Foramina for the great Artery and great Vein of the Head, both of these are attended with large grooves, the Par Sagittum which accompanies the Vein, and the Interosseal which runs with the Artery, so that if a Bullet be shot in at the Ear, it will destroy all these principal parts, and produce instantaneous Death supposing it goes directly forward in a line with the other Ear; the third part, as said before reaches from the Infratemporal Processes to the Occipital ridge, it contains nothing material except the great Foramen of the Spinal Branches; — M^r John Hunter is of opinion that the Mental Intellects do not so much depend on a proper mode of Education, as the quantity of Brain which the Skull contains; as a proof of this he says There appears to be a regular Series of gradation in the size and shape of the Skulls from an European to a Dog's; A Negro's Skull is not nearly so capacious as an European's, it is flatter, and the bones of the face are longer; A Monkey's Skull is flatter and less capacious than a Negro's; and a Dog's Skull is much shallower than a Monkey's, and the bones of the face much longer. M^r John Hunter says several Gentlemen from the West Indies have told him, that they have observed the Children of Negroes are very slow in acquiring knowledge in comparison with those of Europeans, tho' they went to the same School and partook of the same Advantages in common with the Children of Europeans — There are on the Skull and

The Bones of the Head in General

and Basis externally, some Foramina scattered up and down; on the Parietal Bone near the Sagittal suture there is sometimes a Foramen on one side, and sometimes on both, but these kind of holes being at one time found, and at another not, shew them to be of no consequence; and behind the Occipital Condyle there frequently is, and frequently is not a considerable Foramen. The Sella Interna has nothing very material, it has a number of inequalities made by the convolutions of the Brain, and there are branching grooves on its surface made by the Vessels of the Dura Mater, particularly on the parietal bones; at the lower part of the Forehead there is a ridge for the attachment of the Tars, and Longitudinal Sinus, which as it runs backwards becomes a groove for the Venous Sinus. The Brain above is tolerably uniform, divided into two Hemispheres; below it is irregular with the Cerebellum lying under and behind it.

As we did externally, so we divide the Basis of the skull internally into three divisions; The first from the forehead to the anterior Clypeal Processes has forward, and in the middle the Crista Galli; and on each side the bone is concave answering to the Orbit underneath; and behind this the bone is concave to receive the middle lobes of the Brain comprehended in the second division, so that these lobes lie immediately behind the Orbita, and a Ball fired in at the eye will pass under the anterior lobes directly into the middle brain; in this middle division is the Sella Turcica formed by the anterior, and Posterior Clypeal Processes backwards to the part corresponding to the Occipital Ridge. In the middle on the Coniform Process of the Occipital bone is an hollow gently sloping backwards and

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The Bones of the Head in General

and downwards for the Medulla oblongata and beginning of the Spinal Canal just before the great Occipital hole; behind the Occipital hole is a ridge running transversely for the attachment of the membrane dividing the Cerebrum from the Cerebellum and underneath this are small inequalities made by the latter.

As there is a Sinus or Vein on the superior part of the Skull — between the Hemispheres, so there is a Sinus or Vein between the Cerebrum and Cerebellum, which forms the Jugular Vein near the Pars Petrosa. The external mark of division between the Cerebrum and Cerebellum is the transverse occipital Ridge.

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Lecture 23.

Having described the Skull we shall next describe the Face. — The Face is divided into fore head, upper jaw, and lower jaw; the first division or forehead has already been noticed, is part of the Arch, of the Basis of the Skull; in the middle of the first division is the Root of the nose, and in the sides are the Orbita — In the second division are the nostrils; these are open cavities externally, the end of the nose being wanting in the Skeleton; below these are the Sockets for the Teeth, and here the breadth of the bones of the face is much contracted. — In a side view the cavity for the Passage of the Cervatohile muscle appears, the cheek bone and Zygomatic process uniting and forming an arch over it, call'd the Jugum: the use of the Jugum is commonly said to be to confine down the Cervatohile muscle, but it is not, it is to allow convenient attachment to a very strong muscle that pulls the lower jaw upwards, the Gravator muscle. It is this Jugum which gives the Breadth of the Face, and in consumptive People where great Part of the Flesh is wasted, its form is seen distinctly. By the Tibiae Hippocrata is understood the Skeleton of the Face. — If we next take a View from the Mouth the bones appear much contracted and more simple structure, nothing more appears than the bony Roof of the Mouth, and Sockets for the Teeth: at the ends of the upper Jaws are two little Processes with a hollow bony Surface between them called Tossa Phrygidea, the inner of these Processes has a little bony hook call'd therefore the Unciform Process round which the Circumflexus Palati muscle plays. — Looking ^{from} behind we see the Posterior nostrils, which communicate with the

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anterior, and to divide the right from the left nostril there is a Septum: The nostrils run under the Brim of the Skull; the third part or Lower jaw runs and backwards widening as it goes for muscular attachment and articulation. The Canthus of the Face as they appear externally, are in the first place the Orbita; the circumference of these is rather oval and the cavities point forwards and outward to enlarge our Sphere of Vision; the long Axis of the Oval does not correspond with each Canthus, for if the axes of both were extended they would meet in the Forehead at a right angle: internally they go over the Maxillary bone; in shape the cavities are funnel like, and perforated at the bottom, where they are nearly at the same Distance from each other, as they are across the nose; externally there are two Foramina, on the edge of the Orbit, one on the upper edge, which is commonly only a Notch, called the Foramen orbitale superius or Superciliary hole; thro' it a nerve & vein and artery pass to the forehead: the other is called Foramen Orbitale Inferius, it begins under the lower edge, and running backwards opens into the bottom of the Orbit, there is a hole of great consequence to be known just within the Orbit, thro' which the Ductus lacrimalis goes to convey the Tears from the Lacrimal Sac into the nostril. At the bottom of the Orbit are three considerable holes, one close towards the nostril call'd Foramen Opticum for the passage of the Optic nerve leading to the Cella Optica, and is quite round, whereas the other two are irregular holes or Slits called Foramina Lacrae. The Foramen Sacrum Orbitale superius is more outward, and lower than the Foramen Opticum and

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indenters the cavity of the Skull; The *Turamondacuum Orbitalis Inferius* is on the outside of this, and does not lead into the cavity of the Skull, but runs downwards and backwards between the bones of the Skull, and upper jaw; so much for the Orbita.

The internal cavity of the nose is divided by a Septum made partly by bone, and partly by *Cartilagines* running from the root of the nose at the *Basis* of the Skull to the roof of the mouth and is a continuation of the *Crista Galli*; on each side of the Septum the air passage is very irregular made of three bones, the *Os Turbinatum Superius*, and *Inferius* whose lower edges are loose and unconnected, in the third is the *Cellular substance of the Ethmoid bone*. The use of all these projecting parts is for the expansion of *Schleider's Membrane* to make a greater surface for the odorous effluvia to be applied on in smelling; in the Dog whose smelling is very acute the membranous surface is larger than ours, besides the *Turbinata* there are many other projecting *Laminae* in his nostrils. Besides the nostrils there are large cavities communicating with the general cavity of the nose called *frontal*, *maxillary*, and *sphenoidal Sinus*; the *iteration* of the *frontal Sinus* is known by an external rising at the bottom of the forehead, it is formed by the outer, and inner table of the skull *signating*; answering to the *Diploë*, and at its lower part it communicates with the nose near the great canthus of the eye generally by a small orifice on each side separated by a middle partition, this sometimes there is no partition;

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partition; the maxillary sinus or bottom of Highmore is situated between the orbit and sockets of the teeth; it communicates at its upper part with the cavity of the nose near the same place as the frontal does, and lies over the sockets of the grinding teeth. The sphenoidal sinus is the smallest of the three, and is situated just under the fore part of the Sella Turcica in the Basis of the Skull, divided into two by a partition in a line with the Septum Narium, and opens into the cavity of the nose anteriorly, close under the Basis of the Skull. All of these communicate with the nose by an opening belonging to each, not larger than to admit a knitting needle when their proper canals are open. — The manifest use of the skull is to protect the Brain, it is made up of several pieces joined by means of the Sutures. — We have said before that generally there are but five Sutures, the coronal, the Sagittal, the lambdoidal, and two Temporal, and sometimes the Sagittal is continued down the forehead, and makes another called the frontal Suture; the reason why this last is so in this, originally, while the bones are forming there is a seam dividing the frontal bone into two distinct ossifications, which soon is generally obliterated, but sometimes it remains when the bones are perfected; The Sutures on the outside of the skull are irregular, on the inside they are pretty regular, therefore they are made principally by the outer Table. The Temporal Sutures differ from all the rest, they are not interlocked or dovetailed, but overlaying and called squamous. Some authors say there is a middle seam down the Occipital bone continued from the Sagittal, but none is ever found, and none rather advanced from theory than from observation, for the Occipital bone is originally

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one ossification only beginning in that middle. There are also
Sutures called Velos Wormiana; these have two sutures surrounding
them; originally they were two ossifications set up by Nature to
perfect the general mass of the Cranium sooner; they are commonly
seen in the Lambdoid suture but every now and then may be
seen in any others. Hippocrates and some other many others
have warned us not to mix together a suture for a fracture. An
anatomist will generally distinguish them by knowing the
situation of the sutures, but he may be deceived by the nature of
a large Velos Wormiana. A suture has however always an
appearance very different from a fracture, for a fracture will
run in zigzag a manner as a Pillar does, besides when the head
is scalped we can easily remove the Cranium from any other
part of the Skull except at a suture, and at the insertion of the
Posterior Muscles, where it adheres very firmly. In preparing
we need not avoid a suture merely, because it is a suture, but because
there are parts that lie under them which we wish to avoid, and at
the suture the rarer pieces of bone cannot be easily taken out
because of the firm adhesion of the Dura Mater to it. The use
of sutures has not yet been satisfactorily accounted for. In a
fracture they are membranous and allow the bones to overlap one
another in birth, so that the head becomes less and passes more
easily. If the bones be put into their places by force or by forceps
the child will be much hurt, but if it be done by the pain and
efforts of the mother, it does not hurt the child at all. When a
child is born the Occipital bone is found often thrust under the
Parietal bone, which is called by Gurus an Horseshoe head, and
often the Frontal bone is found thrust under the Parietal bone,
which

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which by them is called a mould of the Head, these Appearances are apt to be very frightening, and are thought very material, but they are of no consequence, for in a little time the bones come right again. Why the other sutures remain open after the Fontanel is closed, we dont know. The sutures have been supposed to be outlets to phlegm from the Brain, and that when closed too soon, they are the cause of Juvenile Head Ach, by retaining the humours within the cavity of the Skull. In old People they are often obliterated, and sometimes in young; they are also said to be provided for preventing a fracture extending any considerable space on the Skull, as otherwise it might have done, but a fracture often crosses a suture, and if it adheres to a suture it hardly ever stops without crossing it.

The Skull is more or less spongy within, and compact on each side, so that sometimes there is more, sometimes less of the Diploë. The thickness of the Skull is very different in different people, in ^{pparts} women it is thinner, and in them sometimes in particular it is hardly thicker than brown paper.

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Lecture 24

The last part of the Face we have to describe is the lower jaw; the lower jaw is originally two bones or pieces, which are afterwards united at the chin and perfectly ankylosed in an adult; on the Inside near the Symphysis of the chin are two cavities in which the digastric muscles are inserted, and opposite the Symphysis near its Basis the Genioglossi are attached. On the external part of the lower jaw at its angle is a muscular surface for the Periosteum which pulls up the jaw; below the eminence formed made by the Condyle and Coronoid Process externally is a hole which runs slanting thro' the bone, and terminates externally by a hole under the second grinder, being reflected backwards before it terminates; thro' this canal a large artery venae comune passes to the lower lip; the lower edge of the lower jaw is called its Basis, and is pretty smoothly rounded; backwards it has two Processes, one for muscular attachment called the Coronoid Process to which the Protoplite muscle is attached very advantageously for action; the other process forms the Condyle for the articulation of the lower jaw with the Skull; The Condyle has its articular end turned forwards, and its inner end thrown back, so that the axis of both Condyles make an obtuse angle with one another. The motion of the lower jaw is by the chin going upwards and downwards, so that the mouth when open forms two sides of a Triangle. The center of motion is in the neck of the bone below the Condyle. In opening your mouth the Condyle moves forwards till it is stopped by the eminence before the Articular Cavity, and sometimes in yawning or otherwise opening the mouth

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very wide, it happens that the Condyle slips out of the cavity — over the eminence, the jaw is then said to be Dislocated. The mouth is open and cannot be shut, and the Condyle lies under the Jugum to reduce this dislocation we must draw the Condyle downwards and backwards, and when disengaged it will slip into the cavity of itself for the most part, or we may push it backwards after disengaging it; it generally goes in with a convulsive motion of the muscles of the jaw, and catches the fingers if something is not put into the mouth to prevent it. another motion which the lower jaw has is the quivering lateral motion, which is made by bringing one of the Condyles forwards, while the other remains fixed, so that the teeth rub one each other. The Condyle then plays not only in the cavity but on the eminence also.

We are here to speak of the Foramina of the skull. — The Brain is lodged in the skull, from which go off nine Pair of Nerves — (old anatomie is a yoke) But the tenth Pair properly belongs to the neck proceeding from the spinal marrow; the nerves are reckoned from the back to the forepart of the skull; thus the most anterior are called the first pair, the next in order the second pair, and so on. — For the transmitting of these nerves there are Foramina, and also others for the carotid and vertebral arteries of the Dura mater. — We shall pass over several small Foramina, which are mentioned in different authors, as being of little importance. Just before the Crista Galli is one large hole called the Foramen Cecum, which transmits a small vein that makes the beginning of the longitudinal veins; on each side

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side of the Crista Galli are a number of very small Foramina in the Ethmoid bone through which the filaments of the first pair of olfactory nerves pass into the nose to be distributed upon Schneider's Membrane. The second pair of optic nerves pass each of them thro a round hole on the Anterior part of the Sella Turcica, and go to the globe of the eye. The third and fourth pair and one branch of the fifth pair with the sixth pair all pass thro the Foramen Lacerum orbitale superius; the third pair are called Trochlearis Oculi, the fourth the Pathetic pair, the branch of the fifth pair and the sixth pair all pass thro this hole; the fifth pair produces a number for the face, the trunks make three principle ones, the first which passes thro the Foramen lacerum as was said before goes to the upper part of the face, the second to the Upper, the third to the lower jaw, the second branch passes thro the Foramen Rotundum to the nose, upper lip &c. the third is called the Inferior Maxillary nerve, it passes out of the skull thro the Foramen Ovalis down behind the bones of the face, then goes into the hole near the angle of the lower jaw internally and runs along the canal till it comes out forward near the chin externally; the next in order is a small Foramen for a little artery of the Dura Mater, that passes thro the Os Sphenoides near the Foramen Ovalis. The next is a large Foramen in the Pars Petrosa of the Temporal Bone for the passage of the Carotid artery, from the neck it enters upwards and forwards, and when it is got into the cavity of the skull it climbs over the side of the Sella Turcica up to the optic nerve; with the Carotid artery passes a twig of the Intercoecal nerve. All these Foramina lie before the Sella Turcica, and ridge made by the Temporal Bone. The next Foramen is for the Seventh pair, or auditory nerve, in the posterior part of the Pars Petrosa of the Temporal Bone. It divides

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divides into the Petio Dura, and Petio Mollis; the Mollis winds thro' a cavity in the ear, the Dura goes down near the Styloid Process, and makes the cutaneous nerve of the adjacent parts; the eighth pair or Par Vagum goes through a hole common to the Temporal and occipital bone, when the Nerve goes out to form the external jugular Vein; The Ninth Pair a gustatory nerve goes thro' the Brain by the great Principal Tramme over the condyles. The Vertebral artery enters the Skull by the great Foramen occipitale, and thro' a hole on each side of it, the nerves commonly called the Tenth Pair pass thro' this hole also - Slaving is now done with the description of the Skull and Face, we shall now make some reflections thereon. The word Diploë strictly speaking signifies a Doubling, but it is understood to be the spongy part between the Tables of the Skull. In every skull we may observe that it is wanting in some particular parts, and in no skull it is entirely wanting, so that the common Rule to go on boldly in trepanning till we come to the Diploë is of no Service, because we can never be certain of meeting with it. It is surprising how exceeding thin some skulls are, particularly of women, and more especially about the Temporal Bones. The Trepan may be applied to any Part of the arch of the skull, but Surgeons should avoid the middle of the head because of the Ridge and Groove for the Nerve Longitudinalis, which cause a very troublesome Haemorrhage if wounded. The frontal Nerve should also be avoided, because much pain is caused by the air getting in and disturbing the Drapery, and beside the bone internally is unequal. The Trepan must not be applied on the lower anterior part of the Parietal bones, neither must it be applied near the mamillary Process of the Temporal bones.

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bones, because of its internal inequalities. A Fracture and Depression of the Skull may be of two kinds, In the first case the Bone may be broken as a green Stick is sometimes broken, that is broke this on one side, and only crushed on the other, in the second case it may be broken entirely this, and in this last case we can seldom raise the bone with the Lever without making more than one opening, because the broken piece of Bone generally carries a shell of the internal Table, making the fracture on the inside much larger than on the outside. Every one knows that there is a great Variety in the different shape of Skulls. Sometimes we see there is naturally very great Depressions on the Skull, which might tend to deceive an Incautious Observer therefore we cannot be too careful. The size of the Skull answers to the Brain except that in Pachycephalus it is larger. The human part of the creation has more Brain than the Brute, undoubtedly because the Faculties of sense in a Man are more extensive than in a Brute; Amongst Monsters of the human race nothing is so common as a Fetus without a Brain, and consequently without a Skull higher than the Eyes, while in the Utteres it gives evident signs of being Vigorous and lively, that is while it is in a state nearly allied to vegetation; but when born tho' plump and fine it dies immediately with a Gasp, so that the functions of the Brain are not necessary to the more vegetative part in Utteres, but are afterwards to the living part. Within the substance of the Brain is naturally a little moisture, if this is collected and accumulated, it makes a disease called the Hydrocephalus or Watery head, various Symptoms are the Consequence, Fever, Delirium, and often Death itself; if this disease does not come on till the child is three or

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or four years old, there is no appearance of it externally, that is the skull is not enlarged, but the brain is pressed between the fluid and the bone, ^{so} as to make parts of it near as thin as paper; If it attacks very young children, the ventres are often enlarged, or opened to a surprising degree, and nature endeavours to fill up those by new evaginations. We can tell when this Disease is present in the Fetus by feeling in Utro a kind of bladder, and if the Water is let out the Patient immediately dies, because the sides of the cavity cannot collapse; if the Child lives it is commonly more or less stupid from the compression of the Brain.

A remarkable Instance of this kind was a girl, who lived till ^{thirteen} years of age, her head was of a surprising size, and she never had the least use of any of her vessels, if we except feeling which she seemed to enjoy only in a very low degree.

In the Os Frontis over the external angle of the Orbit is a little hollow, in which the Lachrymal Gland is lodged, and over the internal angle is a Pit to which the Trochlea is fixed. The Frontal Sinuses are not found in young creatures, but as we grow up they are gradually formed, and at 25 years of age they are quite formed; The frontal bone makes a part of the Ethmoid Cells. Writers on the Diseases of Breasts say, that there are sometimes worms in the frontal Bone, which cause very trou-blesome Symptoms. But how can they get there, for we never find any Snuff in the frontal Sinuses of dead People, who used to take it while alive. The Frontanel is a want of bone at the corner of the two pieces of frontal bone principally, for the Paecil are very little concerned in it; By this ^{we} can tell the exact situation

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situation of the Childs head in labour, by examining the bone and the four sutures round it. The Parietal bone is most frequently fractured, and may easily be trepanned, but at the lower and anterior angle there is a hole for the admission of an artery; which if divided may prove troublesome. A Child when newly born has that part of the head which presented a little thickened by the stagnation of the juices from pressure. Very commonly there arises a hard tumor formed by the gradual coagulation of the blood from a small artery ruptured in the time of Birth; there is a feel on the edge as if the Skull was wanting, and the Brain pushing thro and accordingly was supposed by the Ancients to be a protrusion of the Brain. There is little occasion to do any thing, for in time it will go away of itself, perhaps it may be two or three months first, Mr Goode recommends operating them, but it is unnecessary. The Bones of the Orbit are so thin, that a pointed Instrument thrust into the Eye might easily pierce them, and do great Injuries to the Brains. The Occipital bone at its posterior part has a transverse edge for muscular attachment; internally it has two pair of cavities, the upper for lodging the Posterior of the cerebellum, the lower for the cerebellum. The Bone is generally the thickest and hardest of any of the bones of the head, and it is said that it makes a small neck to receive fractures; opposite to the cerebellum it is very thin being a part of the Basis, and little liable to injury. The Part externally opposite to the division between the Cerebrum and Cerebellum is a little above the transverse Ridge. The upper part of the Ethmoid

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Ethmoid Bone is made of cells that communicate with the general cavity of the nose, and from these cells hangs the Os Turbinatum Superius; the thinness of this bone shews us that an instrument run thro' the Orbit upwards and backwards will easily get into the Brain, and so may a Probe rung from the nostril & slender instrument run up the nose has thus perhaps been the Death of many Children, and a person might be murdered so without the cause of Death being found out. A French Soldier had a musket ball lodged within his Skull for a number of years without the least inconvenience, and upon opening the Skull after he died it was found lodged exactly in the Sella Turcica just behind and as it were between the two Middle Incisor Teeth of the upper jaw is a hole, which as it runs up divides into two, corresponding to each side of the Septum Nasi, the Use of it is not known, for in general it appears entirely blocked up with membrane. The Antrum or Maxillary Sinus communicates with the nose by a very small hole, and is often the seat of Inflammation and Ulceration, the Mucilla makes the bone carious and often eats thro' the cheek, and makes a tooth or two carious, so that if there is great pain under the cheek attended with Inflammation, Surgeons should always examine into the state of the grinding Teeth, for a bad Tooth may be the cause, and sometimes it is necessary to draw on the tooth if it be sound, and by running a small Drill up the Socket they perforate into the Antrum with a view to give discharge to the matter, and if there

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there happens to be no matter, it is of no consequence

The ~~Acus~~ ^{Acus} Lachrymalis lies in a cavity of the Os Vnguis just with a ridge on its surface, and from this is continued down the Passage for the Ductus ad nasum. In the Sustyla Lachrymalis if an Incision is made within the ridge down to the bone, the Acus will certainly be opened; to perforate this bone for the same Disease we must direct the perforation downwards and inwards, for if we direct it immediately against the Acus we shall meet with the hard Maxillary Bone instead of the thin brittle Os Vnguis. The Ductus ad nasum opens into the nostril between the Os Turbinatum Superius and the Maxillary Bone, but the Artificial opening that we make is between the Os Turbinatum Superius and Maxillary Bone

The Greek Anatomists imagined the Brain to be a watery part, that it purged itself upwards by the nostrils, and downwards by an anterior Passage thro' the nose, and a posterior Passage into the Throat; and it is to be supposed that the great Discharge from the Nose and Throat in a Catarrh was a purging of the Brain thro' the holes in the Ethmoid bone; but we know of no Passage from the cavity of the Skull into the nose or Throat. The Maxillary, Sphenoidal, and Frontal Sinues open into the nostril under the Os Turbinatum Superius; there are several Opinions concerning their use, some say they are to make a more complex and extensive cavity

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cavity for smelling, D^r Nicholls thinks they do not serve this Purpose, but that they serve to strengthen the sound of our Voice, as the cavity of a Sibbole strengthens the sound of that Instrument, and therefore when the Throat is shut up by Mucus, or in a cold, the sound is not so strong; This is a very probable conjecture. Another use they serve perhaps is that when the Breath is still in sleep, it would become dry were it not supplied with Mucus from these cavities.

Having now spoken of the whole of the Skull, namely, of the Face, and upper, and lower jaw, there remains still an Appendix to the latter to be taken notice of, which is properly to be considered as an external part, or rather the teeth —

Lecture 25th

As the Teeth differ from one another, we shall describe a Tooth in a general way, and then mention the peculiarities of the several Classes of Teeth. — The number of them is different in different ages, because they are added and varied thereby; generally there are sixteen in each jaw, but sometimes the two or four front are wanting of the thirty two — as every Tooth has a part marked out of the gum, and a part concealed within it, and as some Teeth have one, some two, three or four Fangs, on these accounts we shall divide a Tooth into two parts, the naked part called the Body of the Tooth, the concealed part called the Fang, and the line between these we shall sometimes call the Neck of the Tooth, the very upper part of the body we shall call the Basis. — The Structure of a Tooth is best understood by viewing its Centre; if cut thro' longitudinally, we find a cavity within corresponding with the cavity in the body of the Tooth. — We see then that in every Tooth there is a cavity running from one extremity almost to the other; accordingly Anatomists have described an internal Membrane lining this cavity, and they said that this Membrane was the Seat of the Toothache — We see however no Membrane answering to their Description, but in the cavity, in young Subjects especially, we see a tender pulpy substance, which fills it entirely, and is very vascular as appears by injection, and from the Similarity of this substance we may suppose it has Nerves, tho' we cannot trace them. — The whole Fang and inner part of the body is made of a bony substance, the outside of the body has a hard cortical substance, or Enamel covering it, which —

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which is of a very different Nature, and does not cover any part of the Fang. The whole substance of the Fang is bony, and is the most compact bony substance in the Body; tho' it has the cavity before mentioned, yet it has none for Manoe which all other bones have. This bony substance we cannot inject as we can other bony parts, which made Mr John Hunter be of opinion, that it is different from the other bones; but it has two of the characteristics of Bone, in the first place by steeping it in an Acid, it is reduced to a flexible state, and secondly, it is coloured by Madder in growing animals that have been fed on it, so that we may conclude it does not differ materially from Bone. The hard, flinty, cortical part of the Teeth the Enamel is still harder, so hard as scarcely to be touched by the finest tempered saw; if we break it, we always find it breaks into Stria like Antimony or sublimated Mercury. It is evidently made up of Threads laid parallel to another, as Radii from the bone of the Tooth, It takes a very smooth Bright like Ivory, and then its thready appearance is lost. The Enamel as far as we know is not in any Sore & vessels, it is an inorganic concrete situated out of the Roads of circulation, and going no farther than the Neck of the Tooth. If we strike a Tooth in an Acid the Earthy matter by the bony substance will be dissolved, and the Vascular, and combining part remaining, the substance will become flexible but the Matter of the Enamel is all dissolved, and no Vascular or other part being left it crumble into Powder; and what seems farther to prove that it is not Vascular, is that Madder don't colour it in a growing animal; i.e. Anatomists say there is a Periosteum covering

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covering the Tangs as far up as the neck of the Tooth within the Gum, but whether it is ~~or~~ or not is not certain, tho' there is now and then a vascular Membrane to be seen on them, which may be called the External Periodontum. The Gums in a healthy State are united to the necks of the Teeth, and form a most beautiful Vascular Fringe round the Periodontum, which in most people separates from the Teeth as they advance in Life, and leave them bare and exposed. The Teeth are commonly divided into three general Classes, for instance supposing there are 8 Teeth on each side of the Jaw, the two most forward ones are called Incisives, the next one called the Canine or Eye Tooth, and the remaining Five are called Grinders or Molars, but Mr John Hunter not thinking this Division sufficiently expressive, divides them into four Classes, the two foremost he calls Incisives, the next one he does not chose to call Canine, because in Dogs, and other Carnivorous Animals it is a Tusk, very different from what it is in the Human Jaw, he calls it Cupidates, or the Pointed Tooth, the next two Bicuspidates, the three others he calls Grinders. This last Arrangement we shall follow; The Character of the Incisives is that they are convex forwards, and concave backward, having a sharp edge upwards, and a single Tang always; The Incisives of the lower Jaw are commonly smaller than those of the upper Jaw, when the Mouth is shut, the upper Incisives are more prominent than the lower, hence they wear each other away like the sides of a pair of Scissors, sometimes indeed their edges meet exactly, and then they wear down uniformly. The Cupidates are very long, convex internally and externally, and the two lateral surfaces meet the other Teeth planted upwards form a Point on the Basis, whence its name

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name, and it has a very long Fang, which sometimes running nearly as far as the Eye in the Upper Jaw occasion'd its being call'd the Eye Tooth. The Bicuspides are double pointed on the Basis, as the Name expresseth, they are the smallest Teeth in the Head, one point is on the external part of the Basis, the other on the Internal, and on the Outside there is a groove dividing as it were the Fang into Two, the cavity within corresponds with each knob or point on the Basis. The Molari or Grindes is a broad thick Tooth, its Basis is of an irregular form having generally four knobs or points, two external, and two internal, and whether there be two, three or more Tangs, there is a groove on each of them, but only one cavity in each Fang, and the last of the Grindes, which on account of its late production is call'd the ⁴⁰ Dens Sapientia, has commonly but one Tang, and that being so short is the reason why it usually falleth out the first of them. The Fangs of the upper and lower Teeth rest ⁴⁰ peculiarly opposite to one another. Having now consider'd the Teeth as they are in a grown Animal, we will next speak of their life, growth, and Diseases. The Use of the Teeth is evident, the first teeth are for cutting, and dividing our food, the back teeth grind and maulk it to pieces, as the uses of particular Teeth are very different in different Animals Naturalists commonly class them from their Teeth as being their most distinguishing Marks. — The Use of the Enamel. There were commonly two uses ascribed to the Enamel, In the first place it was said, that the bone is of that nature when exposed to Air, that it corrupts, and as the Teeth could not be conveniently covered with a Periculum because it would have been subl'd to pieces, therefore it was said that the bone is covered with an

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an Enamel crust; and secondly, it was said that the Enamel being much harder than the bony substance prevents the Teeth from being worn away so soon as they otherwise would have been without it. Mr John Hunter thinks that both these views are accidental, for most old people have the Roots of their Teeth left bare by the Gums, and yet we find that they do not become carious, and it is observable that the Caries generally first attack the Body of the Tooth, where the Enamel covers it. It was said by Mr John Hunter to be given with this view, that in the first place as it does not wear away so soon as the bony part, it preserves the Gums longer for Irrigation, and also that it is necessary the Teeth should have unequal surfaces, that for this purpose the Enamel is always disposed in Circular Lines on the Body of the Tooth, that they may wear unequally, of course be longer serviceable. A companion or two will illustrate this matter. The Surfaces of Millstones are made rough, that the Corn may be ground on their inequalities; when by long use these inequalities are rubbed off, the Stones are rendered useless—until they have their surfaces again made rough, or as we may sometimes see in old For a hairs which have been worn by the feet, if there are on their surfaces any knots, these knot, like the Enamel being of a harder substance than the body of the Hairdo not wear so fast, hence the surface is rendered irregular; it is just so with the Teeth. In the Teeth of Elephant the Enamel is disposed in Strips thro' the whole substance of the Tooth, but in those large Teeth which are dug up on the Banks of the Ohio, the Enamel forms the cortical part as in the Human Teeth, which makes it highly probable that the creatures they belong to were of the

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the carnivorous kind, and if we may form a judgement of them from their Teeth, they must have been greatly superior in bulk to the Elephant, hence it is likely that this Animal might have been a great Destroyer of the Human Race, and therefore might have been wholly extirpated by the Natives as the Wolves were in England. As to the formation of the Teeth, the following things are to be observed in the jaws of a little Child. There are Sockets for each of the young Teeth which are filled with a kind of vascular pulp; the Root and Enamel of the Tooth are first formed, afterwards the Fang shoots and lengthens so as to push on the body of the Tooth thro' the Gum, the Extremity of the Fang being the last formed; first the Root is formed, then the body and last of all the Fang. In a Child, the full number of the first compleat set is Twenty, which are all shed and succeeded by a second set. The common Idea of the shedding of Teeth was, that the Germ of another Tooth lay originally in the Socket under the first which germin by increasing into a Tooth pushed the first out, and supplied its place, but the rudiments of the second set are found ever surrounded by bone, and must work their way thro' bone before they can appear without the Gum. It has been a question, whether the second set push the first out, or not; they are not pushed out, but fall by a very singular Process. The first set of Teeth have very long Fangs, and as the second set grows up, these Fangs would draw away, and the Teeth fall out at last without any Fangs at all. Sometimes a Child is born with a Tooth or two without the Gum, but as they are little more than the body of the Tooth, they soon fall out, generally in a few weeks, they take up the Apparatus for keeping them in. The common Time of Children's cutting their Teeth is about the seventh or eighth Month. A Child has its first set of Teeth compleat when it

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it is about two years, and as half, or three years old, and then begin to drop about the 6th year. In the Elephant the process of shedding the Teeth is much the same. It is not an obvious thing why we shed our Teeth, as we lose the first set very soon, and retain the second a great length of time. When a Tooth has been drawn, and dropped from the Socket, it is always last. One general law of nature prevails here, that is if anything is evolp'd it is taken up and carried away. This is proved to be the case from the following fact; if we examine the lower jaw of a grown Person whose Teeth are firm, we shall find that the hole where the Nerve enters on the fore part is below the middle of the jaw, but in those that have lost their Teeth some time before their Death, this hole is much above the middle of the jaw because the Socket is carried away. By attending to this circumstance we shall be able to explain several phenomena about the Face of Old People, for instance the short distance between their Nose and Chin, the Chin approaching the Nose which makes its projection greater; this is the vulgar call Nose and Chin. If we apply this doctrine to the soft parts of the Face there will appear to be too great a quantity of Lips, because they are now pressed into a smaller compass. If we look into the Mouth the Tongue appears too big, and so it is so, because the cavity of the Mouth is made less. We come next to speak of some of the Diseases of the Teeth, the most common is a Disease simply requiring the Teeth to be kept clear for use. In young people the Juices are not so much disposed to foul them, but in old people there is a disposition in them to form a crust or Tartar on the Teeth, which is a tender, friable substance of a blackish colour, and of a spongy nature; from its spongy quality it collects

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the Juices that grow putrid, and often infect the Breath to a great degree, this may be remedied by Dentifrices, and drawing it off, rubbing the Teeth with a dry Cloth is a very ready method of removing it when we caught it. Acid is readily dissolved by them always dissolve some of the Enamel, and substance of the Tooth also, which makes their frequent use hurtful. Scaling the Teeth with a proper Instrument will take it off very well, and when judiciously managed, it is impossible it should do any harm. D'Hunter mentions some remarkable Instances of the prejudice this Tartar is of to the Teeth. One in particular was the case of a young Man, who came from the Country with an Intention of having all his Teeth drawn on account of Ulcerated Gums, and Breath so fetid that no one could stay near him. The Teeth were quite black, and covered with Tartar, but by treating a piece of the Tartaceous part off, the Dr. drew a fine white sound Tooth underneath, and he advised him to have them scaled, in a fortnight after, he returned to the Dr. with great Happiness, for his Breath was perfectly sweet, and his Teeth one of the finest Sets severall. Another Disease of the Teeth is when they become rotten, as if it were from some Animal eating them away, it has just the wormeaten appearance, but whether it really is so or not, is not certain. Breathing the Tooth is not always the occasion of its becoming rotten, it must depend upon something else. At first there is a little black spot on the surface which increases and crumbles away into a cavity bigger and bigger. Nothing stops the decay.

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decay, it is therefore best to have the Tooth out soon, but in the end it becomes very troublesome and painful with a short a Stump as to render the drawing exceedingly difficult and even of late years a method has been invented of transplanting Teeth out of one head into another; this appears to answer very well, particularly in those which have a single Fang, but whether they continue firm as long as the Native-Teeth is not yet determined by a sufficient number of Years, it being but a lately introduced practice. Artificial-Teeth too are very serviceable, especially in the fore part of the mouth for Speech.

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The Diseases of Bones

Lecture 26th.

In the first place of the softness of Bones. This is of two kinds, one proceeding from a want of bony matter, which has already been explained, the other of a more extraordinary nature; we shall just make some Reflections on the heads of Ricketty Children. The head of a Ricketty Child is different in figure, and size from a well perfected head, it is large, the frontal bones are very prominent in the middle, and the upper part of the head flat, the Fontanel is open, the Child being considerably advanced in life, the bones on the side of the head are thick and spongy. This is a Ricketty softness.

The second kind of softness is much more extraordinary, it sometimes happens to grown Persons, and without any evident cause. The Bones become softer and softer till at last they are unable to support the weight of the body, and are reduced to a kind of fleshy substance. This kind has never been accounted for; Dr. Hunter calls it a softness from Idiopathy, that is from something in the Constitution, we are not acquainted with; Mr. Croch of Norwich has published a case of such a softness of the head, that with a knife he easily divided the bone of the lower extremity longitudinally, beginning at the Toe, and carrying the blade thro' the Metatarsal Bone, Tarsus, Tibia, Patella, and the Femur. A case of this kind of softness was to be seen at Paris of a woman, whose fingers and arms were twisted in all manner of directions. The Reason why the bones, after having been exfoliated in their substance, do become soft is what we cannot account for.

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account for the wasting of Bones, The Animæ or ruling Principle is possessed of a Power, by which it can take up Parts of bones by Absorbent Nerves, and carry them out of the constitution, as we have already Receiv'd in the Lecture on the Jaw bone; but can the bones fall away or waste in bulk like the soft parts, which from being plump and fleshy sometimes shrink up to nothing but skin and bone? Mr Chevoldene says they may, but the case which he has given does not prove it, for it is most probable the bones were never bigger. — A case similar to Dr Chevoldene was communicated to Dr Hunter by Mr Torn late of St. Thomas's Hospital, A Poor Woman that was almost starv'd to Death by hunger and cold in the streets was brought to the Hospital and died there, the bones of one Leg and Thigh were smaller than those of the other, and what seems strongly to contradict Mr Chevoldene's opinion of wasting being the cause, is that there was an ankylosis of the Joint of the Hip, which probably had prevented the bones ever coming to their full growth, by making the limb motionless at its upper part, it does not appear that the bones ever waste after having been once firm, and yet remain sound. One of the most common accidents or Diseases of Bones are Fractures. A Broken bone if kept still and the body be healthy unites and becomes firm by means of a Callus: a Callus was formerly supposed to bear inorganic concrete like Pine-Plaster, and it was said that if a Callus was broken it would not throw out any liquor to reconnect it, and therefore that a Callus was always thicker and stronger than any other part to prevent a possibility of it being broken — The Callus strictly speaking is bone, for it is organic, and has all

all the properties of a Coney substance, it exhibits the same
Phænomena as bones do when steeped in acid, it is coloured by
Madder as Bones are, by injection we can fill its Vessels, and when
broken it will furnish again and again. How is this Callus produced.
M^r Du Hamel says, that the original bone itself is made of layers
of Periosteum like the layers of wood from the back of a Tree, as was
said before in speaking of the formation of bones, that the bone is
surrounded with these layers, and that when a bone is broken these
are made ragged, inflame, thicker and fill up all the interstices
and at last become bone thus uniting the fractured ends, but
it appears plainly not to be so. M^r John Hunter broke the bones
of Chickens, and opened them after one, two, or three days, and so on
till many dayes had elapsed since the fracture was done, the result
of these experiments the Drays were as follows; after the first day
there was a gray,ropy, bloody fluid in the cavity between the ends
of the fractured bone; after two dayes it was gelatinous and free from
Blood, and as more dayes elapsed it appeared firmer, and by and by
the fluid was seen to be vascular by injecting the bone, and the
Vessels were seen passing from the sides of the bone and running
from one end to the other. A Pupil of Hallerius of this Opinion
he says that Callus is at first a gray, bloody flux, next a jelly
next a gristle, and that in the gristle ossification begins to
shoot, the gristle serving as a bed for the bone to shoot in, so that
the ends of a broken bone pour forth a fluid, which undergoes the
changes just mentioned, when Bones are not well set, the
cavity between the broken ends is large, but the whole cavity
being filled with this fluid, the ends are as firmly unitcd by
means

Means of the Callus when far a wound when very raw together; If the fractured ends should lacerate the neighbouring soft parts & car to make cavities in them, the fluid will run into them, and the bone will be united by an irregular mass — especially in a part where no bandage can be applied, as in a Fracture of the Os Femoris near its head. Those bones which are well set have less Callous than those which are badly set — particularly where the Fracture was surrounded by Bandage — from hence we see how easily loss is informed & caused by a Fracture communicating with the cavity of the joint, the Callus flows into it, and forms irregular masses, which hinder Motion, so that moderate bandage is of use to confine the Callus within bounds, and prevent its flowing into the Laceration; when a Rib is broken, we apply a bandage to moderate its Motion in Respiration, and the Action of the Lungs while the Callus is soft & smoothes it, and keeps it within bounds but as there is nothing to keep it within bounds upwards & downwards the Callus oftentimes cements two Ribs together we should take care therefore to examine the Part before we perform the Operation Paracentesis, if there ever has been a fractured Rib — When the two bones of the Leg are broken they unite not only by their own proper ends, but the Callus flows from the Tibia to the Fibula, and vice versa when the laceration has opened a way for it; so that after a fracture of the two bones are often united together; if this happens between

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the Ulna and Radius, it will hinder pronation and supination. sometimes there is a peculiarity in the constitution, so that no Callus is formed and the broken bone continue disunited. The only one constitution that we know of which occasions this is a very high degree of Scurvy as was said to be the case in Anson's Voyage, and it has been said that a consolidated Callus will be dissolved again, and the ends of the bone disunited if any part be affected with a high degree of Scurvy afterwards, but it cannot be liable to any disorders, but such as the bones themselves are liable to, indeed from its being more spongy it may perhaps be first attacked with the disease. When there is no scrofulous affection this want of Callus is owing to different circumstances not so clearly understood. It has been said that in this case the two ends have no disposition to throw out Callus, but they certainly have. In Du Verney's Posthumous Work mention is made of a Monk, whose Ulna and Radius were fractured and never united again. The arm was examined a considerable length after when he was dead, and it was found that the two ends of the Ulna, or the ends of the Radius were ununited, yet each end of the bone was united with the cartilaginous end of the other in a transverse manner. Mr White of Manchester had a case somewhat similar to this under his care, the ends of the fractured bone produced no Callus for sometime, he laid open the part and saw'd off a piece from each of the broken ends, and then they united with Callus; he found it was occasion'd by a piece of skin lying between the two ends of the bone, and thus by performing the office of a valve, prevented the fluid from running

turning out to form the callus. If a Fracture of the Arm, Thigh or Leg should continue loose for six Weeks it will be best to dress off all Bandage, and give the greatest freedom to the circulation thro' the Limb, for by this means probably it may recover, and it is very likely that an bandage is often made too tight and is hurtfull. It is really wonderful what we daily observe in simple fractures, tho' there is often great laceration and extravasation of Blood internally, yet if the skin is but whole, they generally heal very kindly; On the other hand if the fracture is a compound one, for instance if a Splinter of bone should pierce the skin, there is commonly great Inflammation, Fever &c in short there is no end to the mischief.

Mr John Hunter accounts for this by supposing there are two kinds of Inflammation, a suppurative, and an Adhesive one and that in simple fracture, the suppurative inflammation very seldom comes, but only the Adhesive, If this is the case we should always treat a compound fracture as much like a simple one as possible, and in slight cases we should not probe or dilate the wound, but keep the limb still and quiet. It seems very likely that exposure of the parts to air conduced toward the mischief.

Mr Pitt broke his Leg in mounting his Horse with his Boot on the bone pierced the skin, and it had the appearance of a very bad compound fracture, notwithstanding which it did well very soon, this is accounted for by supposing that at the time the bone pierced the skin, the flesh was twisted, so that when it returned to its natural form it closed over the Orifice and excluded the air. — Commonly the inferior part of the Thigh bone when fractured is behind the upper part, when the Tibula

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The Tibia only is broken, it is of no consequence, The Tibia keeps it from aching much, indeed it hardly wants binding up; when the Radius and Ulna are broken, sometimes the Callus shoots transversely, and then pronation and supination cannot be performed. The Tibia commonly breaks below its middle, that being its weakest part, and the Tibia breaks oftenest a little below its upper Extremity where it is weakest, but it is of very little consequence in this Part. When the Patella is broken transversely, and the pieces much separated, the use of the limb is in a great measure lost, it is better to unite them if possible. Sometimes after the fracture of a Patella a ligamentous substance adheres to the bones of the joint coming to them, and prevents their motion. A Lady who had had her Patella broken, stumbled against a Carpet and found something gave way in the joint, she supposed the Patella was again broken, but was agreeably surprised to find she had gained the use of her knee, which ever since the fracture had been almost lost; this was occasioned by the giving way of this ligamentous substance form'd from the Patella and continued to the end of the Femur. A loose body is sometimes found to catch in the joint of the knee, and make it stiff with great pain, then it will slip away again, and the motion of the joint bear compleat before ^{to} Dr. Hunter thinks this is caused by the angles of the Bone in the joints shooting out excusencies, which breaking off occasion this complaint; the same thing may happen in any of the joints; when we can't catch hold of this substance, we should cut it out at the upper part of the capsular ligament. We come next to speak

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speaks of desolation. We are to consider Bone as as a living part which has a disposition to throw off a Part if it that has become dead, and to renew it. We have said that the fracture of the inner table of the Skull commonly exceeds that of the outer table, and makes the elevation of the Dura & pia difficult or not to be accomplished with one operation only. Sometimes a rent is opened by Violence, & frequently when a fracture crosses it, which must be considered as a fracture and treated as such, when there is a fracture near a rent the bone must be trepanned on both sides of it because of the decapsulation of the Dura Mater to give vent to any, greater or extravasated fluid, and if the violent symptoms continue we should perforate again and again. What has already been done must not make us neglect to discover if possible the very ends of the fracture. We should not trust to trepanning one part of it alone, but do it in many if the symptoms require further relief. And we should always continue to place the Tegum on the front depending part. If after scalping and Tegumming the Patient live what follows? It is the nature of Bone to become dead to a certain extent, but its substance remains unchanged & while the edges of the living bone inflame, and endeavor to bring about desolation by casting off all the fibres round round the dead Part, so that after trepanning of the desolated piece of bone comes away like a ring. This process in the bone appears to be very similar to that by which the fleshy parts of the body are renewed

renewed; Tendons and other parts often slough in their whole extent, but in bones the dead parts always appear the same — Hot Irons and Caustics applied to the living bone will make it dead, and then Nature will bring inflammation and suppuration, by which means the dead parts are separated from the living; Exfoliation is said to be of two kinds, sensible and insensible; when a piece is exfoliated large enough to be taken off, it is called sensible Exfoliation; after Exfoliation has taken place the edges of the living bone shoot out new fibres, which supply the place of the old entirely, when the Exfoliation is not very large and the patient young; but in old Subjects where there is great loss of bone, part of the cavity is afterwards only covered with a membrane; when a bone inflames to throw off a dead part it is altered in its appearance, it has a number of little Lump-like Papillæ on its surfaces, but the dead part remains unchanged. The Canes of a bone is not a superficial disease, it generally affects the part of the bone quite thro' from one side to the other; Sometimes, the bone is affected most in the middle, and a piece is separated from the rest and is loose within. Dr Hunter heard a case where a curious piece of the Tibia was separated internally, and remained loose in the bone. A Bone that becomes dead immediately has not its texture altered, but in some cases the texture of the bone is soon altered thro' and thro', especially from Fever.

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Fever, and remains alive till it cumbles away; so that
partial Exfoliation can be of little service, and burning a
carious piece of bone does good no farther than by deadening
the piece and thus procuring a large Exfoliation in less time
but it cannot remove the disease. A Woman subject to
fits in one of them fell into the fire, and lay there long enough
to burn the Integuments of the Scapula, the bone was deadened
to a great Length, the piece exfoliated, and was a large as an
ordinary Sausage. She got well, and never had another fit, the
piece exfoliated was unaltered (the fire had not burnt, only
deadened it) and of the usual colour.

Pecture 27th

There are two methods of treating the muscles, the first is to shave a compleat set of them at one time, as those of the head, those serving for Respiration &c, the second is to shave them in their natural order as they are placed on the body; both these methods have their Advantages and Disadvantages, but we shall chiefly follow the last method, as we shall then see the parts in their most natural state. The Muscles of the Abdomen are five pairs, the Obliqui Externi, the Obliqui Interni, the Transversalis, the Recti, and the Pyramidales; these together with the Integuments and Peritoneum form the Parieties of the Abdomen, laterally they are fleshy, in the middle they form a broad Tendon or Aponeurosis, all below a line drawn across from the Anterior ~~post~~ part of the Spine of one Ilium to the other is Tendinous. All the way down from the Siphond Cartilage to the Pubis is a whiteness called Linea Alba, having the muscle on its middle part, the whiteness on the outside of each Rectus Muscle is called Linea Semilunaris, and from the outer edge of the Rectus or Linea Semilunaris to the Linea Alba are several cross whitewicks called Linea Tranversa, common only three on each side. The Obliqui Externi, so called from their situation are very large Muscles of different length in different parts, of them, they cover part of the Chest itself, they are attached to the seven inferior Ribs by slips or digitatione between those of the Latissimus Dorsi and Seratus Major Anterior. The being very nice about this attachment is of little use.

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are, because there is variety in different subjects, their fibres run downwards and forwards to the spine of the Ilium, and the Tendinous fibres run on thro' the groin to the Pubis; they act as straight muscles by drawing the Chest towards the Pelvis, or the Pelvis towards the Chest, when one acts alone, it twists the body to one side, they act also as respiratory muscles by drawing the Ribs downwards, they act likewise as hollow muscles by flattening the belly, and compressing the viscera, they help to expel the Urine and Feces at the same time. They press the viscera against the Diaphragm and so act on the lungs.

Peyrart's Ligament is formed by the Aponeurosis of the Abdominal Muscles being stretched on the hollow of the groin between the anterior edge of the spine of the Ilium, and the Os Pubis. Under this Ligament the Intestine passes out of the abdomen, in a Membrane. The Testicle is suspended by the Spermatic Cord, that passes thro' the Tendon of the External Oblique Muscle down to the scrotum close by the lateral edge of the superior projecting part of the Os Pubis. The Passage in the Tendon is called the Sling to which it is everywhere attached; the slit in the Tendon would be very large were it not for cross bands uniting the fibres together. The Oblique Aponeurosis runs downwards and backwards and is exactly of the size of the Abdominal space without bone, for it is attached to the spine of the Os Ilium, and to the last Rib and margin of the Chest, and by uniting with the common Aponeurosis it is inserted into the linea Alba, at its posterior part.

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part it is very short from the spine of the Ilium to the margin of the Thorax; its action is either as a straight or hollow muscle. The Spinalis Thoracis does not pass thro' this muscle, as some authors assert but immediately under its lowermost fibres, as it does also under the fibres of the next muscle the Transversalis. The Tendon of the Obliquus internus as it runs towards the Linea Alba splits into two Laminae, one of these is blended with the Tendon of the External Obliquus, and passes before the Rectus into the Linea Alba, the other Lamina enters the Linea alba by passing behind the Rectus, and is blended with the Tendon of the Transversalis, which passes entirely behind the Rectus, so that the Rectus is invested in a Tendinous Sheath, and to this Sheath it is loosely united by threads of cellular membrane, which are easily torn thro' with the fingers, but at the fore part of this Muscle the Union is much stronger between it and the Sheath and cannot there be separated as elsewhere. The Transversalis arises from the margin of the Chest a little on its inside and forms the Fascia of the Loins, it is attached to the spine of the Ilium below, and forms a Tendon which gets to the Linea Alba by means of the common Aponeurosis. The action of this Muscle is to gird the Abdomen and depress the Ribs for Expulsion of the Feces &c. The Rectus is divided by the Linea Transversalis into many portions of flesh with indentations between them. It is narrower below where it is attached to the lower side of the Os Pubis than it is above where it is attached to the upper and fore part of the margin of the Chest on the side of the Ilium and Cartilage

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Cartilages. It acts as a hollow and straight muscle. The different fleshy parts of the Rectus appear to be thus formed, to draw the Abdominal Muscles up & down so as by their action to compress some particular part of the Abdominal Content, and shift them a little; these seem probable from the indentations being firmly united to the anterior part of the sheath. D'Nicholl's opinion concerning the Use of the Recti was that they together with the Pyramidales draw down the Utricle so as to relax the Ligaments coming from thence to the bladder, and thereby enable us to empty our Bladder. The Pectoridales are sometime wanting, and therefore their office is not so material but that it may be supplied by some other Muscle, or by the Abdominal Muscles in general. These five pair of muscles have on their inside the Peritoneum, which is very smooth towards the Abdomen and connected with the Muscles by cellular Membrane. This Membrane is reflected over the whole Abdominal Content and forms their external covering; so that water in an Ulcer touches nothing but this Membrane, and cannot get out of the cavity of the Abdomen. The Abdominal Content, then may be said to lie behind it, and to do the great Blood Vessels & Spermatic Vessels,

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Lecture 28th

We shall consider them in the order of the secretion of the semen, and its Expulsion, and in they appear in the adult. The Testicles take their Vessels from the great Vessels as high up as the Loins, the Vena Cava lying on the left side of the aorta. The Aorta sends off two little Arteries from it, one apart, one on each side, a little below the Emissaries called Spermatic, that of the right side comes from the first part of the Cava, and turns with the right Spermatic Artery; the left Spermatic Vein comes from the left Involgent Vein, and goes down with the left Spermatic Artery; on each side the Artery and Vein tend towards the groin, not in a direct course, but a little about to avoid being hurt by the motion of the Intestines; they are connected to the fixed parts by the Cellular Membrane and lie behind the Peritoneum. There is great Variety in the manner in which they arise from the large Vessels, now and then from the Trunks, and now and then from the Involgents, that is general as before described. It has been said, that the Spermatic Artery is smallest at its origin, but this is a Mistake. But it has been said, that there are communicating Canals between the Spermatic Artery and Vein, but injections prove this to be an Error. Students, from not reflecting that these Vessels pass behind the Peritoneum are apt to imagine, that there must be a hole in the Peritoneum to let them pass thro', but they are no ways concerned with each other, they pass under the Peritoneum thro' the Ring in the external Oblique Muscle, into the groin following nearly the sweep of the Pecten, that is

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That is, they are downward and inwards; just so they pierce the tendon of the external oblique muscle they join the Vas Deferens. The Intestines are contained in the cavity of the abdomen, and therefore whenever a bowel is passed thro' the ring forming the Puncture, either the Sutonium must be stretched out before the Bowel, which is most commonly the case, and then that part of it is called the Hernial Sac, or it must be torn to let the bowel pass, where the great artery and vein pass under Couparti Ligament to go to the thigh; the Epigastric Artery arises from the former, and goes upwards to the Rectus muscle. The Intestines in a Femoral Hernia are sometimes on the other, or perhaps on both generally, however they are on that side of it near the Pubis. Underneath the tendon, the spermatic Testicle has other parts uniting with them, and then the whole takes the name of spermatic Chord. The Chord consists of artery, vein, Vas Deferens and Cremaster muscle with nervous filaments, and sympathetic vessels, and passes close by the projecting part of the bone Pubis just over the interior end of Couparti Ligament. The Cremaster muscle is made of some of the fibres of the oblique muscle that come from the spine of the ilium, it wraps itself around the chord, and goes with it thro' the Ring to the Testicle, it suspends the Testicle in the Scrotum, and spreads its fibres over the body of this gland, by its action it draws the Testicle upward towards the Pubis, besides this the Chord has a thin Tendinous fascia from the under part of the tendon of the external oblique muscle.

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As Authors say, there is a sheath proper to the Head of Testicles call'd by them Tunica Vaginalis Communis, but the Spermatic Cord has no vaginal coats, it is connected with the Serosa by Cellular Membrane only, to the Testicle how ever there belongs a bag or coat call'd Tunica Vaginalis propria, which while it is unopened makes the Testicle appear one even oblong mass. This bag is loose from the Testicle every where, except a little longitudinal part behind, where it is connected with it in its whole length; In this Bag the water of an Alydrocole is lodg'd, and obscures the Testicle except at its back part, where it may be felt with the finger, every where else the Testicle is cover'd with water, and cannot be felt. If we open the Bag the Testicle appears to be composed of a body, and the Epididymis loosely connect'd with the body. The Tunica Vaginalis is originally Pentomaur as will be shewn when we come to the Fratal Testicle; it is reflected over the Testicle and forms its outer coat call'd Tunica Albuginea so that the water of an Alydrocole can touch nothing but this Membrane. The Testicle is an oblong body one end laid upwards and forwards, the other downwards and backward; the Spermatic Cord enters it at its posterior side, that where it is connected with the Tunica Vaginalis behind, the Vessels at the upper end, and the Vasa Differens at the lower; the Epididymis is upon the back part of the Testicle, and outside of the Vessels, it begins with a knot at the upper end and runs to the lower end, and makes another knot there; by observing

these

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These circumstances we can tell the Right from the Left, the lower end of the Epididymis turns in and then runs up to form the Vas Deferens which runs upon the inside of the Ejaculator, the Artery and Vein in the Ejaculator branch, and go principally to the Testicle, some of the branches go to the Ejaculator. Those branches which go to the Testicle run in a very serpentine branched call'd Vas Pampiniformia, the Vessels being large are apt to become varicose. These vary from a troublesome and oftentimes a painful disease call'd Varicella, frequently appearing and so appearing suddenly, it gives an odd uneasy pain sitting or standing, which is much abated by supporting the Testicle. It may not uncommonly be caused by a too great tightness of the waistband of the breeches. Now for the structure of the Testicle and Epididymis. The Testicle is immediately inclosed in a strong Tendinous Coat call'd Tunica Albuginea, united with it, but a small force will separate them, To the great strength and firmness of this membrane the great part of the bruised Testicle is owing, as it hinders the swelling and injured parts are more or less painful in proportion as they are distended with more or less difficulty; The pain of this part is very similar to that of the stomach when it is bruised, it is a dull oppressive pain and entirely unmannered. The substance of the Testicle is all vascular. The spermatic Artery shoots from behind to the front principally, but some branches proceed round it. Writers speak of a tubular substance appearing from a transverse section, the tubes proceeding from a center to the circumference in several portions like a wreath. Orange or

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Lemon, but this seems to have no foundation; Besides arteries, veins, lymphatic vessels, and nerves, there is in the substance of the testicle, a number of small tubules which are long and twisted up in a wonderful manner; these are the secretory vessels that carry the semen, we cannot trace them into the Vas Deferens, but the Vas Deferens may be traced into these tubes. The Vas Deferens is very thick externally without the abdomen, and may be easily distinguished in the hand with the fingers. If Zinc Silver is poured into it, it goes down to the lower end of the Testicle, and we see that the Epididymis is made of this tube divided into a surprising number of convolutions, and at last dividing into a number of tubes it enters the body of the Testicle at the upper end, and then last, by proceeding in this manner the tubuli testis may be injected; The two ends of the Epididymis are closely fixed to the body of the Testicle above and below, but its middle part is loosely fixed. The present Professor of Anatomy has observed, that there sometimes is a tube which runs up from the Epididymis into the substance of the cord, and this he supposes to be an absorbing vessel, that takes up the semen from the Testicle and conveys it into the blood vessels when not draughted off by coition Dr Hunter has ^{seen} more than once, but he thinks that it is a Lucas natural, for in one case he found it running up to the cord, and coming down to the Epididymis again, and he never could trace out any communication between this tube and the vessels, and in another case of this kind he injected the tube with mercury and found it to have an evanescent end, a blind tube.

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we shall now make a few Reflections on Ruptures in Adults. —
The most common of them is the Bulbocele, when the Intestine comes
thru the Ring into the Groin, and by degree descends into the Scrotum
in coming down it carries along with it the Peritoneum ^{as it is to be}
contained in a Bag called the Hernial Sac, this Hernial Sac is direc-
ted towards the Testicle within the middle of the Cord, and has the
Cremaster Muscle stretched over it; it forces its way thru the Cellular
Membrane of the Cord, being directed down it by the Cremaster Muscle,
forming at it were a sheath around it, but connected with it.

From what has been said it appears, that in Adults, the Intestine
can never get down to the body of the Testicle because of its
reflected Membrane the Tunica Vaginalis, neither can the water of
an Hydrocele ever get into the Cord, so that there may be an Hernia
in the Cord, and water in the Tunica Vaginalis existing on the
same side without any communication with each other, and we
shall find that in Ruptures which happen to Children the case
is different, the Intestine being often found in Contact with the
Testicle.

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Lecture 29

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We will next take a view of the Testicle as it is in the Frates
In the Frates the Testicle is placed in the Abdomen on the fore-
part of the Psoas Muscle covered with the Peritoneum. The
Vas Diferens does not run with the Artery and Vein, but goes downwards
backward, it has a pyramidal body owing to its lower end
called Gubernaculum, as large as itself, so called because it seems
to guide the Testicle into the scrotum; when got down into the Scrotum
a protuberance is passed thro' an Aperture from the Abdomen down
to the body of the Testicle thro' a sheath which is afterward obliterated
except at the lower part where it always makes a bag containing
the Testicle call'd Tunica vaginalis, so that the Tunica vaginalis is
plainly an elongation of the Peritoneum. This sheath is a long
cavity contracted like the end of a bottle at its upper part, and
dilated to contain the Testicle at its lower, it is afterward
every where obliterated except what is immediately upon the
Testicle and a very little way up the cord. Haller was the first
who described the descent of the Testicle from the Abdomen into the
Groin, by which Dr Hunter easily accounted for the congenital Hernia
hinted to him by Mr Sharp about the year 1742. The Gubernaculum
and Testicle generally descend to the scrotum about a month or two
before birth. In their descent they drag the Peritoneum thro'
the Ring, and it then forms a bag communicating with the cavity
of the Abdomen, the Peritoneum that originally covered the Testicle
makes the Tunica albuginea, and if the Intestine should descend
into —

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into this bag it will touch the Hydrocele, so that the Hernial body will be in contact with this. While in an adult the Hydrocele and Hernia may be distinct from each other, but in a Fetus, they cannot be seen, of the Vagina Vaginalis opening into the Abdomen.

The Penis is made up of spongy substance incased with a double sheath, which when the Penis is flaccid the blood is thrown out of the spongy substance, and then becomes soft. This spongy body is double one on each side called Corpus Cavernosum, underneath these and between the two there is another spongy body called Corpus Spongiosum Utritrix, having the Utrix running thro' it. The two Corpora Cavernosa separate under the Pubis, & are fixed to the inside of the bone, one on each making the Corpus Penis. The Corpus spongiosum Utritrix goes down to the Penesum & makes the bulk of the Utritrix. The Corpora Cavernosa terminate forwards each in a point, how they are covered with the Glans, which is formed of the Corpus spongiosum Utritrix continued over them. We shall now consider the parts concerned in the operation of Lithotomy. Before the Symphysis of the Pubis is the Utritrix, and a little lower is the bulb of the Utritrix lying in the Penesum. The Arses have a circular muscle called Sphincter Ani by which it is constringed and kept close; on each side of the Arses is a broad thin plume of muscular fibres called the Levatores Ani, whose office is to raise the Arses, & assist in going to stool. The muscles of the Penis are the Erectores Penis, which arise near the Superiority of the Ischiurn, & run forward & upward into the Penis, but how they erect the Penis is not clear; the Accipitores Utritrix come down obliquely & backwards from the Corpus Penis on each side.

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side and cover the bulb of the Urethra, making when they meet a middle white Tendinous line along the bulb; they are said to act by jerks to throw out the last drop of Urine. The Prinacum has one muscle call'd the Transversalis Prinac. The cavity of the Urethra is larger when the Penis is relaxed than when it is erected, which accounts for the difficulty with which we make water when the Penis is erected. It is difficult to say where the bulb begins or ends, it is only part of the Urethra made larger than the rest. In Coitus the Acceleratores throw the venemout of the Urethra by compressing it & making it smaller. In case the quantity of blood in the Corpus spongiosum was by this means to be less, the Canal also, the Canal being fill'd with semen to be expell'd by the action of this pair of muscles. The Transversalis Prinac arises from the inside of the Tuberosity of the Ischiurn on each side & goes into the Prinacum. To introduce a staff it is much better to keep the concave part to the patient's body from the beginning, & when they have got into the Prinacum draw it a little & it will go into the Bladder. The old Surgeons introduced the staff by keeping the concave part to the patient's body till the point got to the inner part of the Symphysis of the Pubis, then turning it they carried it into the Bladder. In the old way of cutting for the stone the parts were made to project by the staff nearly in the middle of the Prinacum, but commonly a little to the left side, the incision was made upon the bulb of the Urethra. The parts cut thro' were the Acceleratores, the left Accelerator Urina and the Transversalis Prinac, the spongy part of the Urethra.

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Urothra and Bulb, all the passage between the bulb & bladder
was stretched or torn to make way for the Instrument. Mr.
Chevaldon introduced the new, or lateral method into general practice.
He said that the Canal of the Urothra was too small to admit
the necessary instruments, he conceived therefore that cutting the
Canal on the bladder would be attended with less inconvenience
and danger than the stretching or tearing it. To this the followers
of the old method of Lithotomy answered, that the passage could
not be safely cut into any farther than the bulb because of the
Pecten being in the way. But Mr. Chevaldon said that if the
parts were turned considerably to one side (the left commonly) so
that the staff should come near the Urothra, an incision
might be made parallel to the bone down the groove of the
staff in the bulb, and that by plunging the point of the knife
into the groove of the staff in the bladder, turning the edge of the
knife upward, an incision might be made thro' the Prostate
gland & membranous part of the Urothra from the bladder to
the Bulb. The method most commonly used is the lateral.
The Surgeon in this cuts the left Accellerator & incises a part of the
Transversalis Peritonei, a little of the Levator Ani & the bulb of the
Urothra; this is all that is done by the knife & is not so. Mr.
Chevaldon says, The corpora cavernosa penis, are so laid
before one two strong Tendinous substances, on their outside
laid close together for the greatest part, but behind are divided
to make the Cura Penis, between them of the upper side there is a
groove call'd Vena Magora, call'd Vena penis. Penis and Vena

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Dorsi Penis, below there is another groove between them for the Corpus spongiosum Utricula. The middle partition between the two corpora cavernosa is called the Sclerot, for two thirds of its length nearest the glans it is perforated into interstices like a comb, thro' which there is a communication between the corpora cavernosa, and by injecting the one, we inject the other also, but the other third part is a firm Septum without any interstices or perforations; thro' the center of each corpus cavernosum runs an artery, & the blood carried by them is taken up and returned by the vein in the groove on the back of the penis, the coat of the corpus spongiosum Utricula is very thin. That a continuation of the corpus spongiosum Utricula makes the glans is very plainly seen because by injecting that we also fill the glans, which is not the case if we inject the corpora cavernosa. The cells of these spongy parts don't seem to be similar to the cells in bone and other parts to communicate with each other, but appear to be made up of processes of veins. The vessels of the penis are an artery running thro' each corpus cavernosum, on the upper part or back of the penis a vein called Vena magna somatis all the veins of the penis, on the outside of each artery is a nerve dispensing itself every where, towards the forepart of the penis there are two going across thro' the corpora cavernosa to prevent as it were too much distension & enlargement in erection. There were first taken notice of by Morgagni. The integuments of the penis are the same as of the other parts of the body. In the first place it has cellular membrane, which is here very tough, so as to have been called by some a Tendinous Sheath;

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Sheath; where the Penis is connected to the forepart of the Symphysis pubis of the Os Pubis the Cellular Membrane is particularly strong and has been called Ligamentum Suspensum Penis, but it can hardly be called a Ligament, it seems to be only a common Membranous connection. The Cuticle, Skin, & Prete Mucosum are very thin on the Penis & never have any fat under them even in the fatted bodies. The Prepuce incloses the Glans & is nothing more than a fold of the skin, & the skin reflected over the Glans makes its Coat, so that the Glans is covered three times over with the Skin and it has the Prete Mucosum too, the that does not appear because of its thinness as in the Lip; The Prepuce makes a tight band underneath call'd Tisaniun, which is fixed to the underside of the Glans, & draw the Glans down in Erection.

The Tisaniun is sometimes too tight naturally, and may therefore break through, or by repeated coitions it is gradually broke thro', and becomes loose; round the Basis of the Glans there are said to be a number of little glands, which secrete that mucus or fluid that is of a fusty smell, after it has been retained sometime under the Prepuce, there is a little hole on each side that appears by the help of a magnifying glass to be source of this fluid. Here it may not be improper to recommend cleanliness of all kinds, for it is very probable that many cutaneous Diseases are owing to nastiness obstructing the pores of the skin; this we cannot see any nastiness on the skin with the naked Eye yet by examining with a Magnifier we can plainly

see

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see it very foul. Frequent washing and warm bathing should be advised especially in Diseases of the Skin. The greater need much bathing both warm and cold and we do not that cutaneous diseases were so frequent among them as among us. A Lady consulted Dr Hunter for a general itching all over the skin, he judged it to arise from an internal uncleanness of the skin and directed the warm bath, in twice as long of the remedy, she was perfectly freed of her complaint. Whenever there is a general itching it is ten to one but it proceeds from the before mentioned cause, and if the warm bath be made use of it will as certainly be cured. The two proper Diseases of the Prepuce are the Phymosis, and Paraphymosis. The Phymosis is a common complaint of a young child, and very often continues naturally thro life. It is occasioned by the ring of the Skin being too small to suffer the Glans to be uncovered and is very painfull when inflamed, often however it continues without any inconveniencie. When it becomes troublesome and painfull it is cured by stretching up the prepuce longitudinally and setting it at liberty, so that the Glans may be uncovered. The Paraphymosis is a girding of the Prepuce behind the Glans when that is concealed, so that it cannot be returned back again over the Glans. They who have a tight foreskin are often liable to have a Paraphymosis when the prepuce is drawn off the

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off the Glans, and by bending round the neck of the Glans it occasions Inflammation, and Distension so as to prove dangerous, if not relieved by making an incision through the tight Prepuce, and letting it free; a narrowing of the Prepuce is the occasion of both these diseases, and both are cured by a Longitudinal Incision.

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The General Contents of the Pelvis

Lecture 30th

Having now considered the external parts of the Male Organs of Generation, we shall take a View of the general contents of the Pelvis. The Terms, above and below, have been used in three different senses when applied to the Pelvis, which has occasioned much confusion; when we speak of the parts contained in the Pelvis, we shall always refer them to the Axis of the Pelvis, by which we mean a line supposed to be drawn from the End of the Os Coccygis upwards and forwards midway between the Symphysis of the Pubis and Sacrum. The Paries of the Anterior half of the Pelvis is nowhere bony except the Os Pubis; the sides are bony at the upper, but not at the lower part; the Sacrum and the Os Coccygis make the Paries of the Posterior half; the lower part of the anterior half from the Os Coccygis to the Os Pubis is made of the Levator Ani, the Sphincter Ani, & more forwards by the Transversalis Peritonei. The Situation of the knee in general is at some little distance from the outside of the Os Coccygis between the angle made by the Axis below & the under part of the Os Pubis at its Symphysis, and before it are placed the Penis, the Transversalis Peritonei, Levator Sphincter Ani, the Acceleratores Utrinae, Rectores Penis, and Bulb of the Utrina over the fleshy brim of the Pelvis made by the Pecten Musculi; on the left side passes down the Sigmoid flexion of the Colon with a little of the Mesentery connected with it to form the Rectum. The Rectum in the human body is not straight as its name implies but is

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so in the Quadruped, it lies in the hollow of the sacrum, & inside of the Os Coccygis, terminates at the Anus. It is every where supported by bone or muscle, & lies so close to the bone, that to introduce the finger per anum it must follow the course of the Os Coccygis, & not be pushed directly upward, but obliquely backwards, it follows the turn of the sacrum and the Coccygis making one or two side flexions, and is larger than the Colon to be a Reservoir for a quantity of feces, which are retained by the action of the Sphincter, till we evacuate them; this contrivance prevents us from the necessity of continually going to Stool; when the Rectum is full of feces it presseth & greatly altert the situation of the viscera what are near it, & when its muscular action is weakened or destroyed as is sometimes the case, particularly in women & old people, hard faces are often accumulated & must be broke in pieces before they can be ejected. The upper anterior part of the Bladder is connected loosely to the Symphysis of the Pubes by cellular membrane, its shape is oblong, its lower anterior part is joined to the Prostrate gland & is always in the same situation, but at its back part it is continually varying in size from the different quantity of urine it contains at different times; when there is little or no Urine in the Bladder it contracts itself to almost a solid body, of when much distended with urine, it then rises considerably above the Pubes & D^r Hunter once saw it so much distended by a suppression of Urine that it rose as high up as midway between theavel & Scrofula. Cordis in Patients have been cut for the stone by making an incision above the Pubes into the Bladder, this is called the High Operation.

It can

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The General Contents of the Pelvis

It can only be performed without hurting the Peritoneum, when the Bladder is distended & rises with the Peritoneum a considerable space above the Os Pubis, for when it is not distended, it is situated below the Os Pubis, and an Incision made there will wound the Peritoneum twice before it gets into the bladder. The Prostate gland, possesses the whole space between the Bladder & the Rectum lying very closely, or the latter, it may be distinctly felt in line, if it be passed beyond the Sphincter, it feels like a hard roundish body. That part of the prostate gland which is connected with the bladder is called its Basis, & the opposite side its apex. The Vesicula Seminales are situated immediately under the bladder beyond the prostate gland. The Ureter passes down from the kidney over the fleshy Prism of the Bladder, under the Peritoneum to the under side of the bladder, terminating in its most depending part with respect to the cavity of the pelvis. The Vasa Depressa separate from the spermatic Vesicle & pass down the sides of the Pelvis Bladder within side of the Ureters to the Seminal vesicles. The Uretra begins at the lowest part of the bladder, so that every drop of Urine may run out of the body, as the reason why a man afflicted with a stone - shall all of a sudden have the Urine stop in running water, because the stone by its gravity falls on the beginning of the Uretra & stops the passage, & why he urine, better in an horizontal position, because the stone than gravitates to another part of the bladder; it passes into the upper side of the Prostate gland nearly, at the middle of the Basis & comes out at its under side a little below the apex, so as to run almost thro' the upper flat side of this oblong body. The bulbous part of the Uretra is without the muscles of the penis towards the Perineum. The Canal

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Canal that lies between this & the Prostate. Gland is the Membranous part of the Utricle. The bulbous part is an enlargement of the Canal, & the Membranous part does not enter it, plump at its middle, and so goes this it, but enters it at its upper side all the way thro', so that it hangs pendulous from the Utricle. All the membranous part is within the muscles of the Anus, & lies close to the Rectum. By introducing a finger into the Rectum beyond the muscle of the Anus, the groove of a staff may be distinctly felt in the Membranous part, & the difficulty that sometimes happens in introducing the staff is occasioned by the end of the Instrument getting into a cavity of the Prostate gland. To remedy this, withdraw the instrument a little, then raise the end by depressing the hand, and it will readily pass into the bladder, if still any difficulty should remain, stretch, introduce the finger in Ano, then withdraw the staff a little, & draw the parts with the finger in Ano towards the Bladder which will make the end of the Canal straight, then raise the end a little, & it goes into the bladder. Authors are very inaccurate in their descriptions of these parts. Le Brun in considering the merits of the different ways of cutting for the stone made a drawing of these parts, which being judged by Heister to be their real situation is adopted by him in his book of Surgery. The parts are there drawn at a distance from the Rectum, so that a knife might pass safely between it, & the bladder for some way up. The prostate gland is not drawn in its proper situation, but lies at a considerable distance from the Rectum, & the Utricle is made shorter at the middle of the Basis & runs thro' it; these are evident

Bladders

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Bladders, for the Bladder & Prostrate gland, & all the parts that are in a line with the Rectum are closely adhering to it, & there is no space between them - The Peritoneum goes down lining the inside of the cavity of the lower part of the Abdomen, & then covers the upper part of the Bladder & Rectum, but a very little indeed of the Bladder - All the parts below the Peritoneum in the cavity of the Bladder lie in the cellular Membrane - In the old method of Lithotomy the parts were all made to project nearly in the middle of the Perineum and the incision could not be carried farther than the bulb of the Utricle, because the Rectum lay in the way, & must be wounded if the knife were carried farther towards the bladder, the membranous part therefore and Prostrate gland evaginated or torn to make way for the extraction of the stones - To avoid the ill consequences of tearing or stretching so principal a part as the Utricle & Prostrate gland Mr Chevalier made use of the lateral method, & describes his manner of doing it in this way - First introduce the staff of graft it to the left side of the Perineum so as to carry the Utricle & Prostrate gland towards the Tuberosity of the Ischiium, & to keep the Rectum clear he orders a finger to be introduced in long & the gut to be drawn to the right side, then the incision to be made down to the staff in the bulbous part of the Utricle by cutting from the side of the Tuberosity of the Ischiium towards the Perineum, & by placing the back of the knife in the groove to carry the incision on thro' the membranous part of prostrate gland into the bladder the Prostrate gland lies so deep in the Body, & is close to the Rectum, that there is hardly a possibility of cutting thro' it without wounding the Rectum

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Rectum, and the prostate and membranous part lie so closely connected to the Rectum that they cannot be pressed aside from it, but if they are pressed to one side the Rectum will follow; It has happened to many Surgeons who have cut directly into the bladder with the knife, that the Rectum has been wounded, the parts lie so near it, that this accident cannot be avoided if we follow Mr Cheseidens advice. We cant with safety then cut further than the bulbous part of the Bladder, if we make use of the knife only; and many People cut in Mr Cheseidens Way who render impotent by the division of the seminal Ducts.

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Lecture 31^o

Having now considered the situation of the general contents of the Pelvis, we shall return to the male organs. The Scrotum may be considered as an elongation of the thin & cellular Membrane of the Penis, for by inflating the one we inflate the other also. It is ready formed in a Fetus for the Reception of the Testicles, at what time the Testicles come down we don't certainly know, but from observing that in general a child born at seven months has them not down, & that a child born at eight months has, we conclude that for the most part they come down one or two months before birth. It has been supposed that the Efforts of breathing in the child - attempting to cry prodded the Testicles in the manner of a Rupture or Inguinal Hernia; but this is hardly likely, as it is done by an Interval process that we are not acquainted with. As to Structure the Scrotum is made of cellular Membrane further have described a muscle belonging to the scrotum by the name of O. Dartos, but without any seen or then being nothing like muscle. Fibre to be seen, the use of it was said to be to constrict the scrotum along the scrotum from the Penis backwards in a middle line called the Raphe. Many have decried the System Scrotal, & said that it is a hard ligamentous partition dividing the scrotum into two sides & cutting off all communication between them. But it is only a firm cellular Membrane with vessels running upon it from the Penis, making such a Partition as that there is a passage thro' from one side to the other. This has been the Subject of much Dispute. It is the cellular Membrane more ligamentous

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Ligamentous & firm, but so as an evagination thro' it, gives as a suspensory ligament to the scrotum to support the Testicles, with the internal Male Organs we must take the Urinary Bladder, especially as it is intimately connected with them.

In Morgagni's Time the Bladder was figured as it is in Dead bodies, particularly as it is in Day, of a Cylindric Shape with a broad part called the Fundus, & the bladder contracting gradually & smaller & smaller into a narrow part called the Cervix which ran invariably into the Urethra, but it is not so in Human body, its Meatus to which the Prostrate Gland is connected, is in the middle of the larger Part. This is then called Cervix & Fundus being the smaller Part, in both however the most depending part is the most capacious; Some have reckoned that part of the bladder connected with the prostrate Gland to be the Rectus called it Cervix Rectus, others have considered all that broad part where the Urethra comes out from as the Cervix, so that it is difficult to understand what is meant by the Term Cervix Vesicae in Anatomy it is most commonly shaped as in a Dead body, but as we go & more and more into the proper Attitude, the weight of the Urine makes the lowest part more capacious, & the Fundus then becomes smaller. Before we speak of the Structure of the bladder we shall take a View of the situation of the Testicula Seminaria, & a few Description. The Testicula Seminaria lie underneath the bladder, almost united together at the Basis of the Prostrate, & running backward

from

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and from each other outwards to the sides of the Rectum in the Vasa
Diferentia are two very small Tubes till they come under the
bladder, where they are enlarged & with a duct from each & scutum
Seminis they enter the Prostate, & open into the Utricula by two
small orifices on each side of the Caput Gallinagine. The Peritoneum
covers only the upper part of the bladder, & therefore cannot be
reckoned a Coat, under this ground the Bladder is general in the
cellular membrane; at the upper part of the bladder there is a
point call'd Utraculus, from which a pipe goes in the Quadruped
States to convey the Urine into the Utriculus & the outer coat
of the bladder is muscular, composed of two layers of fibres —
the outer layer arises all round from the Prostate, & hence it's
fibres spread longitudinally over the whole Bladder upward,
under this is a layer of circular fibres running round the bladder,
on the inside of this muscular coat the longitudinal & circular
fibres are so unি঵sed as to make a network in all directions —
The use of the muscular coat is to contract the bladder, & open
the Utriculus, which is accelerated by the action of the Abdominal
muscles & Diaphragm, in striving to answer this purpose,
of that the compression may be made equally every where, the
fibres are disposed in all directions. In an obstruction of the
Utriculus when the Bladder is often much distended with urine,
the muscular coat does more than its duty and becomes
stronger; from much action the whole substance is thicker
considerably; this has been generally looked on as a Disease
of the

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of the bladder, & called Scirrhus. But Mr John Hunter says it is only improved in its muscular coat, & therefore is thicker, sometimes twice or three times as thick as it is naturally; whenever we examine a bladder of this kind we may almost be sure of the Bladder having been diseased; In People who are often making water and that too with great difficulty there is now and then a protrusion of the Internal coat this is the muscular one by some of the fibres separating from one another & yielding its pressure made on the Urine by the contraction of the bladder, pouches are formed as was the case of Mr Gardiner, who had several of them at that part of the bladder which lies upon the Rectum, the internal coat was forced thro' the muscular into the Cellular Membrane; the pouches contained stones & opened by a very small orifice into the bladder. The first general coat then is the muscular one, the next general one is the interior Membrane of the Bladder. Authors speak of a Tunica nervosa between this outer & inner coat, but there is no such coat, it is only a common membrane connecting the two together. The bladder like other membranes parts may slough. A Woman, who had suffered greatly from a Retention of Urine during a Labour, had a considerable portion of the bladder slacked & sloughed away thro' the Urthrae. Dr Hunter advised her to take large quantities of bark, & contrary to his expectation she lived for some time & went into the Country after which he heard no more of her, but he supposes that the Urine must have gradually found its way onto the cellular membrane of the Pelvis occasioned her death in length of time. The inner coat

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Coat is an exceeding fine thin Membrane Anatomis to way
 that it is like the stomach & Intestines, but it has no Villi;
 The Use of the internal Membrane is certainly not for strength,
 but by its closeness of texture to confine the Urine, which would
 otherwise get thro the muscular Coat. The Apertures on the inside
 of the bladder are three, two by which the Urine comes in from the
 Ureters, & one by which it goes out into the Urethra; the orifice of
 the Ureters are very small, of an oval shape, & opening obliquely
 so as to admit a probe with difficulty. The Ureters run obliquely
 thru the Coat before they open internally, they make a ridge on each
 side in the inner coat, which ridge running on from the orifice
 meet at the Prostate gland. This oblique direction serves
 all the uses of a Valve, the urine goes into the bladder drop by
 drop, but cannot return because the internal coat is pressed
 against the other side of the orifice so as to stop it. At the
 inside of the Urethra which makes the third orifice, there is
 nothing Valvular. From a thickening of the substance of
 the bladder in consequence of frequency & difficulty in making
 water, it happens that the Ureters lose their Valvular
 insertion, so that the Urine when the bladder contracts is
 forced by the Ureters, the consequence of which is, the Ureters
 become dilated & so does the Pelvis of the Kidneys. Patients have
 been cut for the stone by making an Incision above the Os Pubis
 & as was mentioned before, had to return to the male
 Organo

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Organs; Having considered them in the course of the excretion of the Semen, we shall next consider them in the Excretion, and principally the Vasa Diferentia & Vesicula Seminales become cellular & communicate with them from each Vesicula Seminalis. The Vasa Diferentia goes a duct which all unite into one when they first enter the Prostate & Lycopales first said that the Vesicula Seminales were not cellular, but that they were a continuation of the tubes of the Vasa Diferentia convoluted, & like a long bag crumpled up together. But beside being a tube they branch like a stag horn throwing out lateral cavities. The use of the Vesicula is supposed to be that of a Reservoir for Semen to remain till a quantity is collected & wanted for coition. But Mr John Hunter is of opinion that they don't contain Semen, but secrete their own fluid, which is of a greenish brown colour totally different from semen. Upon examining the Vesicula Seminales of a man whose head was shot off, the fluid was found of this colour. A man died in St George's Hospital who had formerly had one Testicle extirpated, he then conceived that if the Vesicula Seminales naturally contained semen, that now one Testicle was gone the Vesicula of this side must be wasted, but upon examining the man's body, the Vesicula Seminales of both sides were equally full & turgid as ever, & the fluid in them was of a greenish brown colour. To support the doctrine of the Vesicula Seminales being Reservoirs for Semen against Hunter, it was said that a man thinks for some time on coition before he goes

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goes to it, that during that time the semen is collecting in the Vesicula Seminales so that he may be prepared, but that a Dog copulates without any previous thinking on it, therefore he has the semen to prepare during coition, & requires a considerable time for that reason, & therefore on this account he has no need of Vesicula Seminales, accordingly but as none. The prostate Gland is an oblong body with a notch at its Basis, where the two common Ducts of the Vesicula Seminales & the Diferentia on each side enter. It is a firm glandular substance full of white mucus especially in young Men which flows thro' Ducts opening by several Orifices on the sides of the Caput Gallinaginis, & by pressing the gland the mucus may be squeezed out of them into the Uretra. The use of this mucus is not known, no more is that of the Lumen of the Vesicula Seminalis. From this appearance of mucus the Prostate was supposed to be the seat of a Clap, that it was Matter, but this is plainly not the case, tho' seemingly divided into two lateral portions it is one & the same body; Along the side of the Uretra on the Prostate Gland is a longitudinal ridge broader behind, & lessening gradually as it goes forward in a narrow point. This is called Caput Gallinaginis from its supposed resemblance to the head of a wood Cock called by others the venon Monstrum, from its making a little mount in the Uretre, & its narrow part appearing like a spire. The two openings of the Vesicula Seminalis on each side of the broad part, are called the Eyes

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Eyes of a Woodcock, & beside these two holes there is a third and were between them, it is a small glandular follicle, or blind bag. We have said that there is sometimes a difficulty in introducing the Staff, it arises from the end getting into a cavity under a ^{shadde} made by the Basis of the Prostate, by withdrawing the instrument a little to disengage it from the cavity & raise the end, it may easily be pushed clear of the shadde into the bladder.

Cooper's glands are just under the membranous part within the bulb of the Urethra one on each side, they have a duct that runs considerably forwards & opens into the Urethra. From the Urethra from the membranous part of the gland to the inner membrane, of introducing an instrument especially a rough catheter of about it there are a number of little glandular follicles, or blind lacunæ analogous to those orifices of Cooper's glands; there is commonly a pretty large one on the upper side where the Utrica matuta turns under the Torsum to go thro' the gland, these lacunæ are often so large as to receive the end of a small candle & will stop it if we do not follow the turn of the part in introducing it, to remedy this, withdraw it a little & by pressing the end downwards, push it forwards & it will readily pass.

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Lecture 32⁸

We know nothing of the glandular secretion of the Testicles; that their office is to generate the Prostitute Semen is evident from observation in considering a man incapable of getting a child; but how this change is produced in the gland so that it has properties it had not before we don't know; we cannot inject Mercury or any other fluid into the seconary or secretory Vessels by the artery; besides this there is the Prostate Gland, a considerable one which throws out a fluid into the Urethra, the use of which we don't know nor that from Cowper's glands, neither are we acquainted with the glairy seropy fluid that oozes out from all the Urethrae. We don't know the use of these further than that they serve to defend the inner Membrane of the Urethra from the Stimulus of the Urine. One of the most common diseases to which the male Organs are liable is the Gonorrhœa which generally speaking is an increased secretion of mucus from the internal Membrane of the Urethra, of which not owing to Venereal poison is occasioned by sharp juices in the constitution, this sometimes it is quite local in its cause; in Women, more especially those of tender habits it is very common, more so than in Men. The Venereal Gonorrhœa is known to be an inflammation of the internal Membrane of the Urethra for the most part, & brought on by the Infection of Venereal Poison. Some have thought that the discharge flowed from the Lacuna, others from the Prostate Gland, & others from the Vesicula Seminalis; it is pretty plain however that the Disease affects not only one part, but every part of the Urethra, that is, that at first it affects only one particular part.

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part, it spreads from place to place till at last it affects the whole. The General poison affects parts only that are without a Cuticle or where the Cuticle is very thin, which is the Reason why the Utricle is so often affected & not the skin of the Penis, so that even a Gonorrhoea is sometimes intercalated from the Utricle sometimes external from the glans where the Cuticle is very thin, in both there is a copious discharge of mucus like this which gradually diminishes & sometimes cures itself, tho' not often Mercury being a specific internally for the Venereal poison has led many to use it externally to destroy the poison on a particular part, & seems to have been successfully, but as it has been said to have proved hurtfull sometimes, it is not to be recommended very strongly, when this used the best way of preparing it, is by heating the crude Mercury with Gum Arabic, If there be any little crack in the Cuticle or little sore any where about the Penis, a Chancre is the consequence of the application of the Poison to that part, tho' there may be a Chancre with baniging from a Venereal Ulcer, there is danger of absorption of matter & affection of the general habit, therefore this is often seen in the case of a Bubo & Ulcers of the Tonsils &c. As there are external Chancre on the Penis, so also there are internal Chancre in the Utricle, which in heating form a cicatricie & peeling up of the inner Membrane so as to contract the passage of the Utricle, the corpora cavernosa are generally equally distended & harder in erection of the Penis, but from a cicatricie on one both of them, they are sometimes prevented from

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from being equally distended in a young man had the corpora cavernosa broken & when healed there was a cicatrix, that made the Penis form a right angle when erected by drawing the end of it sideways to one side.

We come now to speak of some of the diseases of the Testicle, the most common is the Hydrocele or a collection of water in the bag that contains the Testicle, the Tunica vaginalis; sometimes the water is contained in two or more bags, for an Hydrocele may be formed in the cellular membrane round the Tunica vaginalis as well as in any other part of the body, what pressing the coat inwards will make a Tumor distinct from that caused by the water in the coat, but this is not properly Hydrocele as the water is not within the coat, when there is more than one Hydrocele it is probably owing to inflammation tracing made adhesions of the coat to the Testicle & so as to form distinct bags in which the water is collected; with the Hydrocele there is often a disease of the Testicles at least of their coats; when this is the case, the Radical cure is forced being attempted by all means & surgeon. The Testicle often becomes Scirrhus, sometimes the Scirrhus is only in the Tunica albucinæ, but most commonly it is in the substance of the other glandular parts it now & then becomes Cancerous. Mr Hawthins has a Painting done by Mr Hogarth of a Cancer of the coat of the Testicle, when the substance was perfectly free from it. Sterility happens in both men & women more generally however in the latter; what this is commonly owing to we are

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we are not able to say. Sometimes however it may be owing to an evident alteration in the organs of generation; upon opening the body of a man it was plain from two reasons that he must have been incapable of ever getting a child. In the first place if the Testicle had ever propagated any Semen, there could have been no passage for it, for the Epididymis in both Testicles terminated in a blind fold & thither were the ² Ducta deferentia. They had no connection with the Epididymis, but ended before they arrived there; & secondly the Vesicula Seminales were far removed from the Prostate Gland, & had the Ducta deferentia entering them, but from the Ducta deferentia or Vesicula Seminales there went no Duct at all, so that the Semen if any had been propagated, could not possibly get into the Utricle, but must have been absorbed & carried into the blood. We have already said that Sacculi are formed in the bladder from a Stone stopping the Urine; if the bladder contracting on its contents, the Urine forces the inner coat thro' the muscular one; the same thing happens from an enlarged Spherical Prostate Gland. In old People this gland is often enlarged & sometimes to such a degree as to fill up the cavity of the Pelvis, & thrust the bladder above the Pubis, & the inner coat of the bladder straining over the ruffe of the Utricle like a valve, stops the Urine; the same thing happens as in the Stone, a difficulty of introducing a catheter or staff may arise from this enlargement, & then the method of raising the end can't be serviceable. It is said that when we cannot introduce a catheter the suppression of Urine begins to be dangerous, we must puncture the bladder

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Bladder with a Scrotum however there is a large Prostate Gland which may be known by examining it, this cannot be done below the Ax Pubis, because the bladder is at a great Distance & must therefore be done above the Pubis. It has been much disputed, whether there are ever any Adhering Stones in the Utrinary Passages; it is certain though stones do adhere to the internal Membrane of the bladder by entangling with it & not as a living part, Calculi are found in the Offices of the Lacuna about the Caput Gallinaginis, so that sometimes the substance of the Prostate Gland seems full of them, which tho' small give the same fill as large stones & might deceive greatly. It is probable that some of the Patients who have been searched & said to have a stone in whom none was found, upon cutting have had this complaint, we should therefore be very much upon our guard. The most common cause of a stricture in the Utrithra is a cicatrix from the healing of an Ulcer of the inner Membrane from an old standing Inflammation of Ulceration there is a pucturing up of the Membrane which contracts the passage & occasions a difficulty of making Water &c Dran supposed the Obstruction in the Utrithra was caused by little fungous excrescences, but these are never found. Beyond the cicatrix sometimes a Suppuration comes on, the stone makes its way thro' the Skin externally, & forms the fistula in Perinae, instead of coming thro' the Office in the gland, the urine comes thro' this opening; but when this is the case, the Canal of the Utrithra that before was only contracted, sometimes closes altogether part of the natural passage is obstructed, & the water continues to pass regularly thro' the hole from the Utrithra to the Perinaeum.

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Discoveries of Bones

Every Disease of a bone except Fracture has been called Caries. But a carious bone is different from a dead one, it continues alive & changes its texture, which a dead one does not. Caries is a disposition in a bone to change its texture from a kind of inflammation & is generally incurable; the bone is dead thro' & thro' & is not of it becomes dead till separated from the rest, & sometimes a piece of bone becomes dead in the middle of a Caries, & separates from it & is loose, it remains unchanged in its texture, while the carious part is very much changed; this change is very evident in 24 hours. The Venereal poison is very apt to affect the bones of the skull & make them carious, but we always find a Remedy in Mercury. When the skull is eroded thro' & thro' by any means whatever, it may be known by the rising & falling of the matter in the holes of the bone, in consequence of the motion of the Dura Mater. Bones are more apt in some Subjects than others to run into one another from the redundancy of the Dura Mater, as we see from the closing of the Frontal Suture, & from union between the bones of some Pelves. In Disease the bones are often eroded, or otherwise altered so that if by any change in the constitution the disease should stop, they grow together more especially in the joints, & are always incurable. In leprosous habits it frequently happens, that there is a long continued inflammation & ulceration among the bones, & the disease abating, as it sometimes does in young People, the bones are very loose. It is plain that there is no such thing as an incomplete & healthy bone.

Diseases of Bones

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Bony substance when diseased incapable of changing its form
there in the Spine Vertebra a small bone often becomes exceedingly
large by a shooting out of the bony parts, there are cavities made
in the bone, of water gelatinous matter contained in them
When more confined & shooting out from a small part only, it is
called ^{the} Exostosis, when confined & still more, a Node. Bones sometimes
swell out or raking an irregular surface without & within & become
very spongy, at other times we find them eat away into cavities
which are filled with blood, which seems to prove that the blood
has a power of dissolving bones. Dr Hunter in dissecting a
body found that the substance of the Ribs in several places
was entirely gone, while the bone left remaining made cavities
which contained lots of blood, like recent ones in appearance.
A man who used to sell old feathers had a swelling on his head
which gradually increased till it became very large, when buried
the head was examined & the tumour found to proceed from blood
within the skull was a fungus that had eroded the bone &
thrust it out into a large effuse conve-like appearance, with a
number of little cavities filled up with a gelatinous kind of flesh.

Lat 33^d M

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The Cutis Cuticula, & Pate Mucosum

Lecture 33^d

The Cellular Membrane, Panniculus carnosus, Cutis & Cuticula have been reckoned the Integuments of the body, but the first is no general covering; as for the Panniculus carnosus it is not to be found in the human body, in Quadrupeds it is not a thin layer of muscular fibres immediately under & attached to the skin properly so called; in Dogs it is very evident ³ is that muscle by which they stretch their skin so quickly to throw off water — There are two others as reject from among the Integuments, & to the other two add a third which lies between them, to wit, the Pate Mucosum; first of the true skin, this is a pretty firm tough membrane, & is that substance of which Leather is made, it is of a different thickness in different parts of the same body, generally it is thickest behind on the back and neck, & thinnest before, & every thin in all bending parts; it is observed by Linnaeus & other Naturalists, that Animals in general have their skin thickest on the back part of their body, & by examining a piece of leather we find, that the part which covered the back of the animal is thickest — The skin has some degree of elasticity for if it is pinched up on the back of the hand for instance & let go again, it becomes smoother — It is notable this that the case of the man in the Hospital of Amsterdam is much exaggerated, for it is said that his skin was so elastic that he could draw it up on his shoulders & bring it forwards over his head & face like a cloth, & that if he left it go it would return instantaneously

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Cutis. Cuticula & Pecto Mucosum

instantaneously to its proper place. It is most probable the elasticity we observed, depends as much if not more upon the cellular membrane connected with the skin below, for we cannot pinch up a bit of skin without taking up at the same time a number of fibres of cellular membrane. The cutis of the skin according to Winslow is a firm texture of interwoven fibres like a piece of Mat. Dr. Mitchell used to shew a bit of Shamois Leather to illustrate this, by tearing it, but this preparation was a deception & the fibrous appearance was owing to its vascular texture. It is a substance that contains but few vessels capable of carrying red blood only when inflamed, the vessels however are proved to be very numerous by injection; it appears to be cellular membrane condensed & become less porous, & is organized in a peculiar manner. The cicatrix of a wound in the skin is cellular membrane, not the same in its organization as the first skin, for in working of leather in scraping off the cellular membrane, if there is any cicatrix in the skin it comes out & leaves a hole there; this the workers of leather say is always the case; the inner surface of the skin is supposed to be made unequal by the roots of the hairs, & the cutaneous or milky glands, & authors have talked very much at random about the milky glands, & a proof of their existence, the goose skin as it is called was brought & it was said that those little eminences were those glands, & that the red spots observable on the inside of an injected skin were the undersides

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Cutis, Cuticula & Perte Mucorum

the under sides of them; but from these we can plainly demonstrate that the hairs, come, they are the Roots of the Hairs. On the skin there is a secretion of a greasy Mucus to keep the hair soft, which is probably caused by a peculiar Organisation placed at the Root of the hair, but what the Mucous Glands are we don't certainly know. The Sebaceous Glands of the skin secrete a particular kind of Mucus which may be equalled out like a worm generally of a white colour, this when there is a little black speck if you squeeze it, the Mucus comes out black. The Use of the Sebaceous Glands is to secrete a fluid to preserve the skin from the ill effects of Cold, Dry air & Heat, therefore Persons who are exposed to great heat, have a larger quantity of them on their skin, & this being excreted in a greater quantity about the nose is perhaps to defend the skin there from the Air of Respiration continually passing over it; when it dries in a little Tumble there is an Itching, we are immediately led as by instinct to remove this by rubbing & scratching the part, by this means the Mucus is pressed out & smeared on the skin & the Itching ceases. These Glands are different as we see by the different kind of Mucus that they secrete) in the Axilla it is a mushy kind of mucus, in the Pubes & a very peculiar one, & both very different from what it is about the nose, & the Apparatus is very different, at the nose it comes out of several holes, but at other parts it comes out of small imperceptible pores; it is different in consistence too, at the nose it is fine enough to take a worm-like appearance, in other places it is very thick, the vessels of the skin are very

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Cutis Cuticula & Pute Mucorum

very numerous, & so also we judge the nerves to be. The vessels are seen going into it every where from the cellular membrane in great abundance, & injected, & from its great visibility we conclude it to be exceedingly nervous, tho' we cannot actually trace the nerves into it. The outer surface of the skin is marked with a number of deep furrows, the meaning of this contrivance is to allow of its bending where it is struck with freedom as in the hands of ^{the} *Putres*. The skin of the *Mucosus*, is very thick, & therefore these furrows are very remarkable making a number of folds. Beside the large furrows there are smaller ones, the use of them is just the same, so that the skin is larger near the surface of the part to allow of swelling from Inflammation, or otherwise, therefore when swelled it is even & smoother than when not, & fat people are commonly smoother skinned than lean ones. The skin by means of these furrows is as it were grained, for which reason the best *Statuaries* in irritating the human skin either draw the marble ^{first} ^{white} & then ^{black} or the marble should be unpolished than polished in *Malpighi* was the ^{white} *Pyramides* or *Villi* of the skin; they are most conspicuous on the Palms of the Hands, Soles of the Feet, Glans Penis, & Pipe, on the other parts of the skin they don't appear till the Cuticle of *Pute Mucorum* are removed & to see them any where the skin must be first injected, when they turn out to be exceeding circular. In the Hands & feet they are planted in irregular ridges, not so on the tip of *Glans Penis* & every ridge is made by a double Row of *Papilla*. The Cuticle and *Pute*

Cutis Cuticula of Pute Mucosum

Pute Mucosum not only cover them, but make sheaths for each Papilla

In Inoculation as it is now practis'd, the sumt of these Papille are just wounded, in the nice sens of Touch so peculiar to the Glans, & Hand depend upon these Papille projecting beyond the rest of the skin, so as to catch the most minute object. The skin itself is every where the organ of sensation. The Cuticle of Pute Mucosum are so much alike, that it is better to demonstrate them together.

By blisterng or scaling a graft, or by letting it pass toward Putrefaction the Cuticle separates from the true skin along with it the Pute Mucosum; by this means we can generally tell whether a child is still born or not, for if it had been dead in the Uterus any time, it will be pulnd, & the Cuticle will be separated in many places; In some parts of Animals it is nealy, but whether it is so in the human body is not determined, it is horny & inorganic not appearing to have either Nerves or Nerves & is capable of being made very thick by hard Labour, tho we cannot discover the Cuticle of Pute Mucosum to be vascular, yet the number of fine threads discernible between them & the Cutis upon separating them from it, may for what we know be small vessels connecting them to it; if these threads are organized, they are the smallest organs that are demonstrable in the body, & Dr Glenter believes they are the organs of Propriation. They are both larger than the Part of the body they surround, because they enter into funiculus of the Cutis, & the black of Blackmoor exists —

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Cutis Cuticula & Pute. Mucosum

exists in the Pute. Mucosum only, in him it is plain there are two coverings over the Cutis, but it has been doubted whether the Europeans have two, it is pretty evident however that they have both Cuticle & Pute. Mucosum. In all of us the Cuticula is white or transparent & the different complexions of Hair, Brown, & Black depend upon the different colour of the Pute. Mucosum. The marks made by People on their Arms & other parts are in the skin, for if the Cuticle of Pute. Mucosum are picked off, the marks will remain in the Cutis. The hands of Dyers are coloured by the Cuticle being dyed like an horn in. The Cuticle has been thought to be an inviolated Mucosus, but what its substance is is not certainly known. The Use of the skin is to give a smooth surface to the body, to be the organ of Absoption, the Cuticle serves to prevent the disagreeableness of too sensible touch, for a man not used to work by handling bricks, or any such rough body has quickly the Cuticle worn away, & his hands become very raw, which a Bricklayer that handles them all day long has not his hands altered by; However by its cleavance of texture to keep in the moisture of the body, for in a dead body where a blister has been applied, & the Cuticle come off, the skin is always dry, but where that is on this is always moist, it confines in the moisture. The two most common diseases of the skin are the Itch, & the Vena Gravidinaria, or Guinea worm. The Itch whether it occurs in animalcula is occasioned by a Poison, exogenous, it is infectious, & is certainly cured by brimstone, as the Liver. Venereal is by

Mercury

Mercury. It has been said that particular that kind of food occasions this disease, but that is false, it most commonly happens among the lower Clas of people from their Unchristian life. It has been supposed to be unsafe to cure the Ich, because by so doing bad effects have been produced, but to cure the Ich is necessary unsafe. The chief arises from the Mercury, or tin in stone chalcocite an efflorescence on the Skin. The Vena Medioanalis is very common among the Africans, & only attackes Native of the Country, it breedes in the skin, & where it makes its appearance there is first a little livid spot, which breaking the head of a worm is discovered & soon, be drawn out by degrees to a very great length, if not hastily done. Nails & Hair are appendages to the skin, they grow as plants do by Proteusion from the Root, which is very evident by observing the white spots in the Nails. The Nails are horny & are not elongations of the Nails as was supposed, for they come off from them along with the Cuticle of Pute Mucorum, & are made of the same substance, indeed they appear to be continuations of them. Hair is fibrous, horny, & solid too, its Roots are bulbous fed by Vessels, which probably bring the Matter of which Hair is made in. The Butt contains a glutinous fluid, the hair comes off by Putrefaction along with the Nails of Cuticle. A Native of four months has the body covered all over with hair & it is in regular rows & circles of which considerable quantity is afterwards lost. Hair in some animals, more particularly the northern ones, is given for warmth, but in the human Body this cannot be the case, its principal use seems to be to force us to be clean by entangling.

The Nails and Hair

entangling ^{itself} with any fitt ^{so as to make us evach ofton} to make us evach ofton
 It has been said that the Hair grow after Death, but upon enquiring
 into this by the examination of bodies at diffrent times, there appears to
 be no foundation for this Assertion. The Passions of the Mind are said
 to have effect upon the Hair, as Lases are related when from bright black
 Hair in one night, time has become white; as this is so well authenticated
 it is not lawfully to be denied. D'Heunter was told of a Cow that being
 frightened at water was changed into a white one in twenty four hours.
 What Disease of the Hair that is which is called *Phia Polonica*, we are
 not acquainted with, the most probable account of it is, that it is no
 more than a weakly breed from Habit, which the Poor Poles are
 much addicted to.

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The Invisible Perspiration

Lecture 34th

Some Physiologists have thought that sweat & perspiration were emitted by different Organs, but they appear to be entirely one & the same thing; sweat comes on when the body is warm after exercise, and by relaxation of the Vessels, as after fainting; Perspiration comes out insensibly from the body & continually, it becomes conspicuous by holding in a Chariot with the glass vessel by holding the hand near a cold piece of glass, for the perspiration will collect on the glass in the form of a few drops & increase till it runs down in little streams; On shaking off the mucus which call them perspiration insensibly & invisibly. That animals throw off water from their bodies insensibly is evident from sweating in warm weather, & that they throw it off insensibly is evident from the water collecting on the chariot glass in cold weather, when no moisture can be perceived on the skin. We dont know what Hippocrates thought of invisible perspiration; Sancrois observed it very minutely & found the quantity of it to differ at different times; it passes off by the skin & lungs; we cannot imitate it, as we never can make an injection pass the Cuticle, at the same time as the body is emitting it, it is absorbing also, which is proved by applying Mercury to the skin, & it affecting the salivary glands, & by applying saltlicks & it giving the skin its sour smell, so that the calculation of the quantity of invisible perspiration in a given time would be erroneous on account of the body absorbing at the same time. When we drink a large quantity of watery fluids, we perspire more than when we drink less & in warm

warm Weather we perspire more, & sweat easily, so that a smaller quantity of Urine passes by the Kidneys. In cold Weather we perspire less & sweat with difficulty, so that more Urine is excreted. Panctorius in Italy found the Perspiration generally as 10 to 4 of Urine. In France it is not twice the quantity of Urine. Heil in England found it as 3 to 2 of Urine. In Holland it is near the same as in England. In Adelphi the Perspiration diminishes, & then as their kidney gets the most, of course more Urine is excreted, which make the stone in the Urinary Passages of them exceedingly distressing by the frequency of their inclination to make water. They are continually harassed by Calculous Concretions are most commonly formed in the Urinary Passages, & in every part of them, in the Tubuli & Pelvis of the Kidney, in the Utricle Bladder of Urine, &c. They resemble stone, so much, that they are called, no doubt in all Languages by that name; we shall first consider the Urinary Concretions. The common Opinion is, that they are a deposit of the earthy part of the water, but this is ill founded, for they are formed by Crystallization, as is the Tartaceous crust on the teeth. Their Section by examining one of the smaller & particles, or a grain of Gravel with a magnifying glass, appears plainly to be that of Crystals. this property of Crystallization prevails in one Constitution more than in another, as we see by some people continually passing these concretions, & then that never do. Fluids disposed to crystals, go into Crystallization quicker from having a proper surface to fix upon, according to in making sugarandy they suspend pieces of threads in the liquor to incite Crystallization, & when the first Crystal is formed that affords a convenient surface for more to fix

Calculus Concretions

on, and therefor more, & so on till a large trap is formed; so it is in the Uterus, Prostate, if any thing affords a proper surface a Stone is produced; something is incited they & rats more than others — Mr John Hunter made a number of experiments to determine what were the most inciting, by putting them into a Pot of Boiling Water — upon them & letting them remain for a considerable time; he found that Hair was soonest melted over with Crystallites Dr Hunter has a Lock of Hair connected to a body that was taken from a Woman affected with the common Symptoms of Stone & likewise another, in both which cases it is most probable that the hair had been pushed thro' the Utricle into the bladder — Hair commonly grows upon the external surface of the body only, it has been found nevertheless in the interior parts, particularly the ovaria of Women along with a gelatinous fluid where it could not have got to from without, so that it seems these parts have a power of forming, if not hair, a substance very much like it — Stones are generally laminated, therefore cannot be supposed to be formed by deposition, but this may be accounted for by supposing that they are formed by crystallization & the Laminae are regularly round for the Utricle & Part — Dr Fordeyce has found from a number of experiments, that the Matter of these Crystallites is Animal Earth & Animal Tissues, & thence concludes that a Calculus has two Dissolvents, that is, what will dissolve the Earth, & what will dissolve the Tissues — An Acid, the Marine for instance will take out the Earth & leave the Tissues soft as it does in a bone — The Tissues may be dissolved by long steeping in Water so that it putrefying the Earth will drop from it — The human Calculus is known from

Calcareous Concretions —

from the common Pebble stone by burning it, for it will emit the peculiar smell of Animal Substance that is burning, whereas the other emits not any. By this means we can certainly detect the Improvement of framed by Designing People to extort the compassion & charity of good natured folks, pretending to be severely afflicted with a stone that they have passed some which they shew; they differ in colour being from almost a jet black to an almost perfect white, commonly they are brownish, or yellowish — ² These Stones which are not laminated are called irregular Crystallizations, there are two species of laminated stones — the one simple & the other compound; in the simple the laminae are regularly laid round one Center, if we transverse a section of them they give ² Suckles, & compound when in a transverse section the circles are not uniformly round but in ² goat Scallops, yet each circle having the same center. These kind of circles particularly appear in what is called a Mulberry stone, or that with an uneven surface, whereas the simple has for most part a regular surface. The disposition of the laminae is very evident in the largest ² Intestinal Stones of an Horse, all having their center in the neck & part first formed, of the simple may in it, first formed lamina have been a compound, or the compound a simple, by changing the form of their circles; sometimes there are two centers in one stone, & the circles become elliptical — Generally the Crystallization is equal everywhere of the stones are pretty much rounded, but some they are unequal from a disposition of the Crystallization to advance

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Calculus Concretions —

advances farther on one side than on another, & then they take all manner of forms. After having extracted one stone, to know whether any more remain we are directed to look if the stone has a polished surface, & if it has there is another at least, but this more polished surface is a proof of there being more than one stone, if they are flat surfaces or hollow which are polished, we may pretty certainly conclude that more stones remain. Of the stone lies in the bladder at ease so that the Urine can flow all round it, then it is commonly pretty round, but if by any means it is confined to any part of the bladder, then it is pretty frequently irregular. It may often happen that the stone has a process continued from it into the Utriculus, which takes gouty, the form of the Prostate gland. Thus far of Calculous Concretions in the Urinary passages. Stones are found in the Intestine of many animals particularly in a Horse especially in its Colon. Farmers often suspect this by the Horse as it is called, they thrust their arm up the Buttress & draw away the stones, they are laminated, & made of the same substance & in the same manner as the Urinary concretions; in some animals they are called Bezoars; in them particularly is to be seen the crystallization of the circular laminae shooting from the center toward the circumference. The soft concretions of the Intestines are not Calculous, but formed of unorganized fibres of Vegetable used for Food, for by burning they do not emit that peculiar smell which the others do; another of the soft kind is like the Hair Ball formed principally in the Stomach of Calves, & only in such animals as are hairy. There is no doubt of their ^{being} formed by the animal eating it self & swallowing the Hairs.

Lecture 35th

We begin with the Head, and go downward omitting the Abdominal Muscles which have been already described. The Head is moved by a pair of muscles called Frontalis & Occipitalis, these two are joined by a tendon at the top of the Head, so as to make a Digastric Muscle, & has been called Occipito-Frontalis generally; from its interior part go down some fibres along the Dorsum Nervi, called the Musculus Musculus. The orbicularis palpebrae is fixed by a tendon to the bone of the Nose at the inner canthus of the Orbit, it not only shuts the Eyelids, but brings also the Skin of the Face towards the Nose. The Brow is by the upper Eyelid alone is generally moved in opening & shutting the Eye, because the attachment of this Muscle is below the middle of the Eye. The Rectus lateralis & Transversalis Gravi are properly as it were broken, parts of the Levator Labii Superioris Alaeque Nasi & of the Depressor Labii Superioris Alaeque Nasi. The Muscles of the Angles of the Mouth are all placed in a radiated manner to pull it in a great number of directions; Levator Anguli Oris drawing it mouth upwards; the Zygomaticus major upwards & outwards; the Buccinator drawing it directly outwards or backwards; the Triangularis with the addition of the Platysma Myoides directly downwards. The Platysma Myoides is analogous to the Panniculus carnosus under the skin of a Dog & other Animals, for below its fibres are fixed to the skin of the neck by a crest & from it above it is fixed by a fascia into the Angle of the Mouth along with the Triangularis or Depressor Labiorum Communis. It pulls the Angle of the Mouth downwards & assists in pulling the Lower jaw downwards, it lies over the external Jugular vein & of course is wounded in bleeding in that vein. The Zygomaticus Gravis comes from the Brain of the Orbit near the Zygoma, & joins the Levator Labii Superioris Alaeque Nasi, it is properly only a portion of that muscle. The Masseter is a very strong muscle & its office is to shut the Mouth with great force. The Temporal Muscle is covered with a strong tendinous fascia, it arises from

from the outer surface of the skull, & from the inner surface of the skull
and from the inner surface of the fascia also; it is attached to the coronoid process
of the lower jaw, & pulls that upwards. When Inflammation and
Suppuration comes under this fascia, there are often violent symptoms
attended with excruciating pain & affection of the Brain, the matter is ^{is} loose
makes its way into the mouth. The Reason why this is evident,
all inflamed parts that have not room to distend are very painful, & the
fascia not allowing of distension causes therefore that severe pain, when
matter is formed to the fascia confines it, so that it can take no course but
that of the muscle downwards between it and the fascia, so that it passes
under the jugum down to the coronoid process, and near it makes an opening
into the mouth; The Surgeon may however prevent the matter going so
far, by making a puncture with the Lancet thro' the fascia; when he is
certain of the case, & it ought to be done as soon as possible after matter is
formed. The Sternomastoides arises from the sternum & forepart
of the clavicle, & is attached to the mandibular process of the temporal bone
& for some considerable way back to the ridge in the occipital bone, it is
said by Allinew to be two muscles. When both the Sternomastoides
muscles act, they bring the head forward & downwards; when only one
acts it draws the head downwards, & also turns the face towards the
opposite shoulder. When this muscle on one side, grows rigid, it makes
what is called the Wry Neck, & to cure the deformity Surgeons direct the
muscle to be cut thro', but we should be always & careful to examine into
the state of the other muscles, for if anyone else is rigid the cutting this
tho' will have no effect, the deformity will still remain. Dr
Hawker was advised with about a Lady, who had a Wry Neck,
His opinion was as to whether cutting the muscle thro' would be of any
service.

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The Muscles of the Head. Part 4e

Swicer upon examining the case, it proved to be a Paraly of the Muscles on one side of the Neck, so that the Muscles on the other side drew the Head towards that Shoulder, and turned the face that way. By a piece of silk fixed to the Shoulder of the person on the sound side, and holding the end of it in her Mouth, she could keep her head tolerably well in its proper position, she was not therefore a fit subject for the Operation. We should when advised with on the matter inform ourselves of every circumstance, least after having cut the Muscles, we should be disappointed in removing the Deformity.

The Muscles of the Neck &c

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Lecture 36th

The Os Hyoides has its Basis situated on the angle formed by the Breast and Head, and its horns run backward on each upper side near its Basis is a Penniform Process from which a Ligament goes to connect it with the Styloid Process; The Ligament is sometimes found divided.

The Upper part of the Wind-Pipe which is much enlarged is called Parvus; it is made up of five Cartilages. The Thyroid or Scutiform Cartilage lies under the Os Hyoides, it makes the Promontorium adami; the notch in its forepart may be easily felt with the finger, and thereby it may be perceived that this Cartilage goes up under the Os Hyoides in Deglutition; it has two ascending processes connected with the horns of the Os Hyoides, and two descending which are groovably connected with the Cricoid Cartilage; under the Thyroid lies the Cricoid, its surface before and behind is divided into two lateral cavities for muscles; the other three are the two Arytenoid Cartilages, and the Epiglottis. Between the Pectoral and Deltoid Muscles runs the Cephalic Vein to enter the Subclavian Trunk. Several Trunci of the Clavicle and Scapula are attached to the Ribs. Athletie People raise their shoulders while they breathe, so that these Trunci raise the Ribs higher in Inspiration and enlarge the Chest more. The Subclavian Vessels come out over the first Rib under the Clavicle and Subclavius Muscle behind and under the great and little Pectoral Muscles, and run under the short head of the Biceps and Coraco-Brachialis down the Arm. In amputating at the joint we must divide the Pectoral, Coraco-Brachialis, and short head of the Biceps, before we can get a view of these vessels with their

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The Muscles of the Neck, Breast &c.

their power. In amputating the arm at the joint ^{Prosthetic} Surgeons do not use a Tourniquet, pressure may be made similar to that of a Tourniquet by throwing the Shoulder upward and backward and pressing with the Thumb upon the Vessels over the Rib. Each of the several parts of the Muscularis may act singly, and either pull the Shoulder upwards downward or backwards. The Trapezius and Latissimus Dorsi Dr Hunter calls the Savia of the Loins, and are two broad Muscles situated immediately under the Integument, and covering all the back; when these two are removed the Rhomboides appears —

The Muscles of the Back &c.

Lecture 37th

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The *Sator Leontalis*, *Longissimus Dorsi* and *Serratus Anterior* are best considered as only one muscle, originating from the Ribs all along the back of neck to the head, filling up the cavity between the angles of the Ribs and Spinal Processes of the Vertebrae. From the Occipital Ridge upwards is called the *Arch of the Skull*, & from that downwards the *Basis of the Skull*. The joint of the lower jaw has a moveable Cartilage within it, known as the *Condyle* *playe*, whether backwards in the cavity or forwards on the eminence of the *Temporal bone*. It don't appear to diminish friction, but to vary the motion of the joint, for it moves backwards & forwards along with the *Condyle*, & lies between it & the bone, tho' W^r John Hunter observes that Animals whare *Condyle playe* only in the cavity, & don't vary its situation, have this moveable Cartilage, so that its precise use is not ascertained.

The fleshy part of the Tongue is most probably a body composed of little muscles to bring out its various actions, besides those muscles coming from the neighbouring parts, of the *Longit. Anterior*. By long practice these motions are determined to a great nicety, as we observe by the pronunciations in different languages, & that a native of one country cannot imitate the pronunciation in the language of another, to which he has not been accustomed.

When a Child grows up, it's not being able to speak don't always depend upon a fault in the Tongue, but is sometimes owing to it's not being able to hear, so that what it has not heard it cannot imitate, which was the case of a Child brought from Iceland to D^r Hunter. It is from imitation alone of what we hear, that makes us begin to speak.

The Pharynx, Palatum, &c &c Fasces, Heart, &c

Lecture 38th

The Pharynx makes a sort of Tunnel to the Oesophagus, it is a muscular Bag which by contracting forces the food downward into the Oesophagus in Deglutition. It is best to consider it as a muscular Bag, not as having many Muscles, for they are by no means distinct, except the Stylo-Pharyngeus which draws the Pharynx upwards & backwards. There may be said to be two Palates, the Palatine Osseous or bony Palate & the Palatine Grolli of which the Uvula is a principal part. The Palatine Grolli hangs as a Valve in the Larynx between the cavity of the internal Groat, & that of the Mouth, it has the Uvula depending from it; when we breathe thro' the Mouth, & do not suffer the Breath to pass thro' the nose, the Palatine Grolli is raised up & pressed against the back part of the Pharynx so as to cut off the communication with the Groat; when we breathe thro' the nose only, then it is pulled down against the Root of the Tongue, & admits up the passage from the Pharynx to the Mouth. This we can do at pleasure & by looking in a Glass we see the Palatine Grolli raised and depressed. In general it hangs so as not to impede the passage of the breath thro' either Mouth or nose. On looking in the Mouth beyond the Uvula, we see the Palatine Grolli forms two arches, in which lay the Tongue, the two arches are muscular, one is called Palati Pharyngeus, & the other is called by Albinius the Constructor Isthmi Faecium. The Diaphragm is hollow towards the Abdomen, proportionally concave towards the Chest, divided by the spine into a right & left cavity extending on each side considerably more backward than the spine, it is flexed except its middle part called Centrum Tendinorum, where it is tendinous, called also by the ancient Centrum nervosum. The Heart lies upon the anterior part of the Centrum Tendinorum. This large Muscle is attached before to the Sternum, laterally it is attached to the Margin

of the Chest from the seventh to the last Rib, and at the Margin
exactly, but about an Inch within it, for the Serratus was attached some
little way up within the Chest along its Margin, & backwards it is attached
to the Vertebrae & to the Ligament stretched from the last Rib to the
Lumbar Vertebrae; its middle part makes two Eyes, which run down
the fore part of the spine having the Aorta between them; the Aorta lying
nearer on the left side; the right Eye is the largest, both are fixed in
the Vertebra Lumbarum. The Diaphragm has two Perforations, & as it
thro' the 1st the Aorta passes, as soon as it has got thro' it, sends
off towards the Pulmo Artery, then the Superior & Inferior, & then
the 2 middle ones on each side. The two Perforations are in the middle
near the spine, thro' the right which is round, & in the Tendinous part
passes the Vena Cava, thro' the left which is elliptical, & in the fleshy
part the Oesophagus passes. The Reason why the Vena Cava
passes thro' the Tendinous part, & the Oesophagus thro' the fleshy
part seems to be this, that the Tendon being first immovable while
the Diaphragm acts, the stream of blood should not be impeded, and
the Oesophagus by passing thro' the fleshy part will be contracted at
every motion of the Diaphragm, so that the Stomach when pressed
upon by it, cannot evacuate its contents upward, the canal being shut
up. The Diaphragm in action is brought nearer to an even
surface by being pulled lower at the same time that it draws up
the Ribs & counteracts the Abdominal Muscles in pressing on the
Intestines, the two lateral parts are what principally move in action,
the middle Tendinous part is fixed. What the lungs do we don't
know for they come from the middle part which is not moved. In
Expulsion of the Sputum of a Child the Diaphragm assists, but it has
been disputed whether it acts in Vomiting; that it does act in Vomiting
is plain; that when it acts & presses on the Stomach it shuts up the
Oesophagus

The Diaphragm, Poas Muscle &c

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Esophagus so as to oblige the Food to pass into the Guts; nevertheless we find the food passes upwards into the Mouth, but this is while it is not in action; The Process of vomiting seems to be this, we first inspire strongly & shut the Glottis keeping the Air in, the Diaphragm is then relaxed, & the Abdominal Muscles press out the Contents of the Stomach into the lower part of the Esophagus, we then throw the Air out suddenly and so clear the passage. In Inspiration the Diaphragm is active. In Expiration it is inactive. The Quadratus Lumborum makes the hinder part of the Parietes of the Abdomen, & upon it the Kidney lies. The Concave Muscle is properly only a part of the Levator Ani. Dr. Douglas described it as a new Muscle, but many Anatomists before him had observed it & described it as a part of the Levator. On the Interior edge of the great Poas run the Spleen Vessels. Suppuration happens very commonly about the Loin, the Cellular Substance about the Kidney between the Quadratus & Pectenium inflames & suppurates, Matter is formed & becomes what is called a Poas or Lumbal Abscess. In this case the Matter & caseous particles thro' the skin, but assisted by its own gravity it works down on the Iliacus Internus to the Groin following the course of that Muscle & the Poas Muscules which unite & are inserted into the little Trochanter; at every pressure it works down the Inside of the thigh & goes all the way to the inner condyle of the Femur; if it is not evacuated at the Groin it is to make its way out or be let out, it has made such a large internal Sore as to produce hectic fever & Death, often making the bones cancerous & sometimes passing from one side to the other. If the Matter is formed we can generally guess at the nature of the Disease from the preceding Symptoms of Inflammation & pain in the loins; when the Patient in bed turns his foot outwards, it gives him pain in the back.

back, but if we turn it for him it does not, but on the contrary saves him, or if he bends his thigh forwards & turns his foot outwards it gives him great pain in the back, but if we bend it for him & turn the foot outwards, it dont hurt him, but on the contrary makes him easier, by this we may be pretty certain that $\frac{1}{2}$ parts about 4 Muscles on the forepart of the Spine are in a State of Inflammation. When the Matter is formed & has passed down to the Groin, by putting your fingers to the Groin & ordering the Patient to cough, we may feel it fluctuate, and in case of the Case, we should make an opening there to discharge it as soon as possible.

Dr. Herxell, and Professor Claghorn were consulted in the Case of a Man having Matter passing off by the Intestines; they thought it to be a Sacs above that had made its way into the Intestines & upon examining the body after Death, they found the Matter had made a passage from the Sacs into the Colon. — Another Case of this always the Dr. was Mr. Middleton in a Man who lived in Cornhill, matter pointed in the Groin which Mr. Middleton discharged by an opening through a Ware Candle was passed from the Groin up towards the Sacs for its whole length. He did well; the success of this Case was owing undoubtedly to the Matter being discharged soon.

Lecture 39th

Sometimes there is a little Vein muscle running along with the great Vein muscle, but it seldom goes farther than the Root of the Pelvis, being always fixed to the Sartorius near the Gluteus. Mr. John Hunter is of opinion that the ligament between the Sacrum and the Ilium is the seat of the Inflammation that produces the Psoas Abscess. The great Sartorius nerve is out of the way of being hurt in an injury of the Joint; it often happens that from an Injury done to the Ligament the whole Limb becomes smaller & weaker; this Mr. John Hunter thinks is owing to Sympathy, the whole Limb being affected by want of parts in consequence of the Ligament being hurt, & not owing to any Violence sustained by the Nerve particularly. The Fascia of the Thigh is fixed to the Spine of the Ilium, it covers the fore & counter part of the Thigh down to the Kneeling strongly, but on the Leg it is so intermixed with cellular Membrane as to be undistinguishable. It has a muscle fixed to it which arises from the spine of the Ilium called Membranous, said to tighten the Fascia. Whenever any Matter is perceived under the Fascia, it ought to be let out immediately by making a sufficient incision thro' it; for the Matter not being able of itself to make its way outwardly, will incrust itself between the Fascia & the neighbouring Muscles & make great Havoc. In the Sole of the Foot is another Fascia from whence Muscles arise & strengthen the foot by being extended from the Heel to the Sole. From the foot all along to the Groin are the Vena Saphena. It now often happens after bleeding there arises great Inflammation & sometimes suppuration; this was supposed to be caused by a Tendon or Nerve being pricked, but as it most commonly happens that it follows bleeding in the Cervical Vein, & as no principal Tendon or Nerve lies near it, that cannot be the case; according to Hallett it is a wound.

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The Cause of Mischief from Bleeding

Wounds of Tendons are by no means so consequential as generally imagined. Mr. John Hunter thinks of Inflammation is owing to the exposure of the cavity of the Vein; he says that whenever an internal cavity is exposed, Nature sets up an inflammation to destroy it, that if the untiring inflammation arises, the sides of the cavity are uniting by the first intention, but if suppurative inflammation arises, then the sides of the cavity suppurate, and in both cases the surrounding part partakes more or less of the inflammation; he supposes there is something in the inner surface of the Vein as well as in other internal cavities, that they cannot bear exposure, they are so irritable that when the Vein is inflamed after bleeding it is in consequence of such exposure, the common appearances he says confirm this theory, for very often the Vein is even inflamed only in the course of the Veins, the skin having a line of discolouration running lengthwise along the arm; he has often observed the Jugular Vein of an Horse to become inflamed after bleeding, & in one instance particularly the Vein was inflamed as far as within the Chest, occasioned by Death of an Animal. Wherever suppuration happens from this cause, it commonly extends along the wounded Vein. From a wound on the foot the Vena Saphena was opened & inflamed all the way up to the groin, a string of abscesses were formed which required being lanced open one after another, so that he is of opinion that it is not the wound of a Tendon or Nerve, that occasions these alarming symptoms after Bleeding, but that it is the exposure of the inner surface of the Vein.

Particular Muscles

Lecture 40th

The Anterior Position of the Scalenes Muscle passes between the Subclavian Artery and Vein, as they pass over the first Rib of Artery is outward & between $\frac{1}{2}$ & $\frac{3}{4}$ of the Brachial Nerves going down from the Arm to the Neck passes the posterior Portion. It is sufficient to know that there are small Muscles between the Spinous and Transverse Processes of the Vertebra without being minute about them. The Iliac Vessels pass under Poupart's Ligament pretty exactly in the middle between the anterior projecting point of the Spine of the Ilium, and the most projecting part of the Symphysis of the Os Pubis. The Artery on the outside and Vein on the inside lie upon the united Muscles of Ilias Magnus and Iliacus Internus. The actions of some Muscles are very different according to the different situations of the parts to which they are attached, thus the Gluteus Medius by reason of its being attached behind and before to the Os Ilium acts both as a Flexor and Extensor of the Thigh; Note, all the fleshy fibres of a Muscle are nearly of the same length. The Pyriformis Muscle is divided into an upper & lower Portion by the great Iliac Nerve perforating it. When we sit directly upright the Iliac Nerve is not pressed upon, but when we sit inclining to one side, it is pressed on by the fleshy part of the Limb by that means is often numbed. The Obturator Internus is called a purse-like Muscle, because it has a purse or Sacculus Muscarius on its inside, where it approaches near to Ilium, it receives two muscular portions from the Ilium called Gemini Muscles. The Sincipit Femoris is attached to the anterior bony part of the Pelvis from the Os Pubis down almost to the Suberosity of the Ilium; its anterior part acts as a Flexor, its posterior as an Extensor, & is a strong Adductor of the Thigh. The great Vessel pass down from the Groin between the Pectenae.

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Particular Muscles, and Vessels

Pectenioris and Triceps, are covered by the Sartorius Green down the Thigh between the Triceps and Vastus Internus; all along to below the Middle of the Thigh the Vessels are before the Triceps, they then pass thro' the Tendon of the Triceps in a slanting direction, & get behind it to pass into the Poplite or Ham & are there called Poplitea; where they perforate the Tendon it is no wonder if a Surgeon meets with a great deal of difficulty in passing a needle round the artery in Amputation by reason of the Toughness of the Tendon & the slanting direction of the Vessel thro' it; The Obturator Artery, Vein & Nerve go thro' the Obturator Hole, or Foramen Magnum Pectenioris & the Superior part of the Tendon of the Flexor Muscles of the Leg make the Ham Straps; the outer one is made by the Tendon of one Muscle, namely the Biceps, the inner one is made by the Tendons of four Muscles, viz the Sartorius (which is the longest Muscle in the body) the Gracilis or Rectus Internus, the Semitendinosus, and the Semimembranosus.

Pct. 44

The Muscles of the Leg and Foot

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Lecture 61

The Leg may be said to have two calves, the superficial or adductor of Gastrocnemius, Musculi, & the deeper seated formed by of Soleus. In a rupture of of Tendo Achillis, of heel must not only be placed upwards, but of leg must be bent to relax of Gastrocnemius Musculi. The Plantaris is very small; its flesh by part is very short, there is something very singular in of Tendon of this muscle, it is very long & slender, & is not attached to of the Calcis like of Tendo Achillis, but is lost in of fat of cellular membrane before it reaches that bone; it is all the way distinct from the Tendo Achillis, so that of action directed by this Tendon seems to be distinct from that of of Tendo Achillis, and the muscles, for it is so small that it bears only an extensor of of foot, the Tendo Achillis would have done as well without it as with it. The great vessels passing from of Poples run between the two condyles of of Femur, and the two heads of of Gastrocnemius of Poples on & inside of of Plantaris, & go down to the back part of of Leg between the muscles making of Tendo Achillis & the deeper seated ones. The Little Toe has commonly no Tendon from the Extensor Digitorum Pedis Brevis. A Portion of flesh often goes from the Extensor Digitorum Pedis Longus to the metatarsal bone of of Little Toe, which is called by Winlock the little Peacock. The Flexor Digitorum Pedis brevis has its Tendon perforated to admit of Tendons of the Flexor Digitorum Longus to pass thro' them; this muscle is therefore called Perforatus, from it being more external than the Flexor Longus in of Foot. It is called Sublimis, & that is called Profundus; it is also called Flexor Secundus Internodii Digitorum Pedis. The Tendon of of Flexor longus Digitorum Pedis in of sole of the foot is joined by an accessory piece of triangular flesh from of the Calcis called Caro Quadrata. From of four Tendons of the Extensor Digitorum Pedis longus in the sole of of foot are given off, the four Lumbricales muscles, so named because they are like worms.

Part 15

Lecture 42

The Sacculi mucosæ are full of a kind of Synovia, which is supposed to facilitate the motion of a muscle in the body of a bone. The Teres minor is seldom found to be a distinct muscle, but part of the Infra-scapularis. The Annular ligament at the waist seems to be a continuation of the tendinous fascia. The tendon of the long head of the Biceps flexor cubiti passes thro' a point which is wash'd by the Synovia; except the Popliteus there is no other instance in the body of this kind. Besides the tendon sent by this muscle to be attached to the radius there is a broad thin one, which goes from it to the fascia of the forearm supposed to occasion inflammatory symptoms when prick'd or bleeding, but Mr John Hunter's observations shew that the mischief depends upon the cavity of the vein being prick'd & exposed. Hunter thinks that the muscle called Spinosus Radii longus is not a supinator but a flexor of the forearm only, for he says that in his arm he can plainly feel this muscle swell in bending but in the supination of the hand, if the hand be put prone, by putting this muscle it is not laid supine, but the arm is bent. The Flexors of the carpus all come from the inner condyle of the humerus, & the extensors of the carpus all come from the outer condyle. The Extensor carpi Radialis is called also Biceps because it has two tendonous horns at its lower end. The Flexors & Extensors of the carpus can act together; when the radial ones act together they draw the hand inward & sideways, when the ulnar ones act they draw the hand outward & sideways. When the hand is placed supinely, the Flexors & Extensors appear to go obliquely from the condyles to the carpus, but if it be placed in the middle state between pronation & supination they then appear to take a direct course. The Palmaris longus furnishes the fascia in the palm of the hand. This muscle is sometimes wanting & then the fascia arises from the Annular ligament of the carpus. The use of this fascia is to guard the palm of the hand.

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The Fracture of the Arm, Hand, Caputular ligament of the Shoulder, &c.
Hand from injury, particularly when we fall flat on it. The Tissues of the
Arm & thigh seem to prevent the Muscles from growing loose from the cellular
membrane by their frequent action; they appear also to give strength to their
action, for Tumblers who use great muscular action bind their Arms & Legs
with Ribbands, & Garters, & the newest People find great Relief by binding
something round their body. The Swelling under the Thumb on the
inside of the hand is called Thenar from a Greek word signifying striking,
as being the part we strike with; that opposite to it under the little
finger is called Hypothenar. Bruises have no limb endowed with such
a number of fine Motions as our Arm & Hand neither have they any
Cartilage. The Caputular ligament of the Shoulder joint is very thin and
the joint is more formed for motion than for strength, but the Caputular
ligament is made stronger by being embraced by the Tendons of several
Muscles, on the forepart which is not embraced by any Tendon & conseq-
uently is weaker there, for this reason it is that in a fracture we find the
Head of the Humerus almost always protruded under the neck of the
Scapula into the hollow of the Axilla. It is most probable that the
Caputular ligament is torn in a fracture & that when there is no pos-
sibility of making Reduction, the head of the bone is received into the
Laceration like a Button into a Button hole. What seems to show
that it is lacerated is, by attending to the manner in which the bone passed
out, & making Extension accordingly, we more certainly reduce it so.

We shall now introduce some observation of Mr John Hunter's
on simple and compound Fractures. A Simple Fracture commonly
does well, & a Compound one but seldom; why this difference happens
is by him accounted for from Inflammation; His Idea of Inflammation
is this;

Observations on Fractures

is this: Inflammation is always in consequence of irritation either from a wound as from a cutting or other instrument, from Constitution as the gout, from some Species as of Venereal Disease or from exposure, which is of most powerful of common cause in Fractures; from Exposure simply, or not from exposure to Air, because the Air in Emphysema does not stimulate & cavities it invades itself into; and he finds that in a eagle there is a communication between the lungs & Bones of the wings, so that Air passes from the Lungs into them without doubt to give levity to Flight: When a cavity is exposed it is imitated by Nature sets up an Inflammation to shut up that cavity. If the sides of the exposed cavity are brought together they are united by what he calls the adhesive inflammation, by the living principle of blood, but if not brought together, then the suppurative inflammation takes place. Mr John Hunter is of opinion that blood is alive as Hobson and Harvey thought. If a muscle be taken out of a body & pricked it will contract, its sensibility remaining so as to be susceptible of irritation, this is what he calls the Life of a Muscle. If the blood gets between the divided parts, it unites them by its living principle; we see that two pieces of wood brought together unite as in grafting; and Mr John Hunter has cut 4 Articles out of a Cock, & placed them in the belly of a Hen so as to grow them to 4 Pounds, & by injecting 4 Vessels of 4 Pounds he also injected the Testicle, growing to it by its Vessels. He observed that Blood has a power of itself of becoming Vascular, for by examining a Stump about three months after Amputation, he found that the blood which had coagulated at the end of an artery had Vessels formed by itself in itself, so that it is easy to conceive the fluid blood

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On the Living Principles of the Blood

blood to be alive as it is to conceive the cold body to be warm. The Blood while it remains alive cannot be heated, for if a man who has been sitting close to a very hot fire be bled, and another man bled who has been sitting in a very cold room, their blood will be of an equal degree of heat; nor can it be cooled, for it is found that by putting a fish in water and by endeavouring to cool the water with a solution of Sal Ammonia so as to purge it, all the water was frozen except for a small space round the fish, so that blood cannot be heated or cooled beyond a certain point by reason of its living principle being destroyed. The blood coagulates by being stimulated and coagulates more readily as it is more alive, by being more susceptible of stimulus. Blood drawn from an healthy man and thus stimulated by being exposed, coagulates sooner than blood drawn from an unhealthy man at the same time. In simple fractures the adhesive inflammation more commonly takes place; the parts are united by the living principle of the blood, the blood forms a vascular texture between the divided parts, which at length ossifies and unites the bones strongly, this being in considerable quantity is the reason why the Callus is always larger than the bone itself. And this doctrine does not appear extraordinary, for D' Hunter shows a Patella, in which the very first sign of ossification is a branching artery. In compound fractures a cavity is made which is exposed by means of a wound thro' the skin; in this case the blood parts with its living principle, nature raises the suppulsive inflammation, and the parts do not unite as in the simple fracture owing to its exposure; and D' Hunter shows that

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Observations on Fractures

that a simple fracture may in its consequences become a compound one, the blood which should unite the parts loosing its living principle, the same thing happening afterwards as in the Compound Fracture; he therefore advises us to cover the wound close in a compound fracture with a piece of sticking plaster to prevent exposure of the blood & deprivation of its living principle as a practice attended with great success. In this manner Mr John Hunter accounts for there being so material a difference between the event of a simple & that of a compound fracture, the one almost always doing well, the other but seldom.

The Muscles & Tendons of the Fingers

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Lecture 43

Cross Bands or Tendonations are thrown from one Tendon of a common Extensor of the fingers to another, so that by moving one finger we move another. The Tendon of a² Extensor Proprius Indicis or Distalate passes under a narrow annular Ligament with the common Extensor, & goes with its Tendon to the first bone of a² fore finger & with it spreads a Fascia all over the back of the finger as a² Tendons do in the fingers. As extension of a² finger requires but little force, the Extensor Muscles are therefore small, but in flexion great force is required to apply the finger to resisting bodies, & therefore the Flexors are strong. The edges of a² Propriator & the Extensor are to enclose the Tendon of a² Flexor in a Sheath. The Tendons of the Flexors as they pass along the inside of the bones of a² fingers are bound down by annular Ligaments, three in each finger which contain Synovia for lubricating the Tendons; the first is a narrow annular Ligament stretched over them as they pass the first joint, another broadens on a² first bone of another on a² second bone. Except then the first, the joints are left free from annular Ligament, least flexion should be impeded, & when the finger is bent a² ends of a² annular ligaments come close together upon the Joint. This the two heads of a² Abductor Indicis in the Angle made by the end of the Metacarpal bone of a² forefinger and a² end of a² first bone of the thumb the Radial Ligament, the artery of the Pulse in the Wrist. As in the foot, the four Lumbricals are produced from a² Tendons of the Proprius or Flexor in the Palm of a² hand. The two first interossei externi join the Lumbricals & go with them to the side of the first and second fingers next the thumb. The other Interossei externi goes to the side of a² ring finger next a² little finger along with a² abductor. The Interossei Interni

The Muscles & Tendons of the Fingers

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Interni go to 2 sides of the finger, in each interosseous space there are two, ^{the} Primus & Secundus. Internus Primus goes to that side of the finger next the little finger; Secundus goes to the finger on 2 sides next the thumb. In Describing 2 muscles all minute divisions are avoided, it being only necessary to describe the same twice as one and not as many muscles.

The Joints

In the joint of the Clavicle with the Sternum there is a moveable Cartilage as in the joint of the Jaw; the use of this Cartilage is to adapt itself to the surface of 2 bones in motion to make a variety of Sockets. The joint of the Shoulder is most frequently dislocated of any other joint; the Capsular Ligament independent of 2 Tendons that cover it, is very thin and weak, thinner & weaker before, so that the head of 2 bone when dislocated commonly lies under 2 Scapulae. The tendon of the long head of the Biceps passes thro' the joint in a channel made in the head of the Os Humeri to receive it; it is washed by the Synovia; it is supposed that in some dislocations of 2 joint this tendon is forced out of its channel and rider, but this cannot happen unless there are very great lacerations indeed. This joint is an instance against 2 opinion of that body which is found in many joints being the glandular apparatus for separating the Synovia, for this joint is without it, & is nevertheless well supplied with Synovia. It is nothing but a piece of fat lodged in a cavity which is body had to spare, as is the marrow in 2 bone; and 2 Acetabulum Scapula & 2 head of the Os Humeri being perfectly smooth without any cavity is the reason why this joint contains no body of fat. At the Elbow joint the capsular ligament is very weak forward

backward

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The Joints &c

and backwards in a cavity before there is a piece of fat, & in a cavity on the back part there is a piece of fat also. In this joint particularly there can be no Dislocation without Laceration of the Capsular Ligament, for on each side it is scarce a line's breadth reaching from one bone to the other. The joint of the Wrist is made by three bones the Scaphoid, Lunate & a bit of the Ulna. These are entirely upon the Radius, & the Ulna has no connection with the joint at all, it is articulated with the side of the Radius alone & rotates upon it in a capsular ligament distinct from that of the joint of the Wrist. The bones of the Carpus have considerable motion on each other. There is nothing particular in the joints of the fingers, except the first of the Thumb where there are two Sesamoid bones connected to the second bone of an exactly what two little Palates would be. The joints of the Vertebrae have already been spoken of in the description of the Spine; each bone has a cartilaginous surface accented round the sides by strong ligamentous bones. The joint between the Sacrum & Ulna is very wide, each bone has a cartilaginous surface which do not make a cavity between them, but have strong threads passing from one & entering into the substance of the other. The Foramen Magnum Sacrum is covered with a ligament stretched all round it to give attachment to muscles like as a bone does; It is said that a Hernia of the bladder & Intestines may happen thro' this foramen, but if that be true (which however does not appear so) it is out of the Reach of Surgery for if there should be a stricture the disease would lie very deep being covered by the Rectrices, & if an incision is made thro' the ligament the Obturator Artery will be wounded by the Hemorrhage prove fatal. Under the United tendons of the Psoas Magnus & Iliacus Internus where they play upon the bone there is a sacular mucous to allow of muscles to slide easily by from & to the joint

The joints &c

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The joint of the hip admits of a great deal of motion besides the capsular ligament there is in $\frac{1}{4}$ inner part of the a ligament which connects $\frac{1}{4}$ head of the Femur to the bottom of $\frac{1}{4}$ Acetabulum, it is called $\frac{1}{4}$ suspensory ligament, but improperly for it does not suspend the thigh bone, as will appear to any one at the slightest view. It is so loose that when the capsular ligament is separated all around, it will allow the head of the Femur to be drawn with ease over $\frac{1}{4}$ rim of the Acetabulum, towards $\frac{1}{4}$ Ischium or rump. There is a want of the bony rim, this is supplied by a cartilaginous ring. Dr Hunter thinks the reason why the acetabulum is made of cartilage rather than bone in this part is to give way to $\frac{1}{4}$ head of the Femur as it adapt the socket to it, when not pressed on by the head, to be pressed on by the muscles & be thus adapted to the bone. Within $\frac{1}{4}$ socket at $\frac{1}{4}$ bottom is a piece of fat. The capsular ligament is not fixed round the head of the Femur, but lies down around the neck of $\frac{1}{4}$ bone, so that it is loose to allow of free rotation. It appears pretty evident that $\frac{1}{4}$ head cannot possibly be dislocated without previous laceration of $\frac{1}{4}$ capsular ligament. At the knee joint the capsular ligament is very loose on $\frac{1}{4}$ forepart to allow of bending. In collections of matter within $\frac{1}{4}$ joint the Patella is raised up, you can see below it there is as it were a bag of fluid, which is a common appearance in a white swelling. Between the segment of $\frac{1}{4}$ Patella & $\frac{1}{4}$ Tibia there is a sacculus trucous in which there is often a collection of fluid not communicating with $\frac{1}{4}$ joint. The great strength of this joint is $\frac{1}{4}$ Loop ligament between $\frac{1}{4}$ two Condyles, these being placed behind prevent the leg from going farther than to a straight line with $\frac{1}{4}$ thigh. The two Condyles of $\frac{1}{4}$ Femur

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The joints &c

Femur do not play on the cartilaginous surface of $\hat{\gamma}$ Tibia, but on two moveable flat semi-lunar cartilages. The use of these cartilages is to make variable sockets in figure of scitulation for the Condyles, within this joint is a considerable quantity of fat &c by cutting this the segment of the Patella near that bone, it will not immediately enter the cavity of the joint, but goes into a bed of fat. In the joint between the leg & the foot there is nothing but what is common to other ginglymi joints. The capsular ligaments is loose before & behind, but on the sides it is very tight and here must be ruptured before dislocation can happen. In the other joints of $\hat{\gamma}$ Foot there is nothing material, only that there are two sesamoid bones connected to the first bone of $\hat{\gamma}$ great toe, which makes a groove for $\hat{\gamma}$ Flexor Tendon to lie in, as in the Thumb they serve the office of Patella. The Tendon of the Flexor longus passes thro' a sheath on the outside of $\hat{\gamma}$ Foot, in its passage to the underside of $\hat{\gamma}$ foot this sheath serves to bind down $\hat{\gamma}$ Tendon of prevent its slipping, it contains a small quantity of Synovia to make the tendon slide easy. The other Tendons of $\hat{\gamma}$ foot are tied down by Annular Ligaments to keep them in their proper place.

General Figure, Situation, & Connection of the Viscera

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Lecture 4.1.

To understand $\frac{1}{2}$ of Viscera better it is necessary to give a general view of their Figure, Situation & Connection. The Thorax & Abdomen are divided by the thin muscular partition of Diaphragm; their cavities are both perfectly filled by the Viscera, so that except in an unusual state, there is no cavity not filled up. In considering what Viscera is affected when the patient shows us $\frac{1}{2}$ place of his pain, we must remember that $\frac{1}{2}$ Viscera ascend & descend, or go to the side in $\frac{1}{2}$ different positions of the body being higher in laying along, lower in sitting or standing, & to one side when we lean to one side; & to know whether $\frac{1}{2}$ lungs are wounded or any other Viscera; when a man is seen thro' $\frac{1}{2}$ body with a sword, we must enquire whether it was at $\frac{1}{2}$ time of Inspiration or Expiration for in these actions they will be higher or lower as the Diaphragm is elevated or depressed & we must enquire whether $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach was empty or full at the time, for when it is full it will be much lower in the abdomen than when empty, & in pregnant women & graved Utter rising up must necessarily alter the situation of all $\frac{1}{2}$ other Viscera, or the increase or diminution of any Viscera will vary the situation, so that an enlarged Liver may extend down to the Os Ilium. The Thorax is entirely surrounded by Bone & it is divided into $\frac{1}{2}$ Anterior part or Sternum, the two lateral parts & $\frac{1}{2}$ Posterior part. This division is all that is necessary in $\frac{1}{2}$ Thorax, making an allowance for the rising & falling of $\frac{1}{2}$ ribs in Inspiration & Expiration; But in the abdomen it is different, there is a very large space without any bone at all. In anatomy, to have therefore divided it in so many Regions for $\frac{1}{2}$ same reason that a astronomer have divided the Heavens into Regions; - The Abdomen reaches from the Diaphragm down to the Pelvis.

The Abdomen, Thorax &c

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Pelvis is there divided, conceive a line to be drawn across the body about one half way down to the margin of the Chest, & midway between this & the pelvis imagine another line to be drawn across the body, all the interior part of the division above the last imaginary line is called the Epigastric Region, and the two lateral parts are called the right & left Hypochondrium. The Epigastric Region is a triangular space bounded by the edge of the Pelvis, the highest part of it is called Scrofuliculus Cordis or part of the Stomach; this division anteriorly of for some little way laterally at its upper part is Thorax, the posterior, superior, and inferior part is all abdominal. Suppose a line drawn across & an equal distance below the last with the other, all the space included between these two imaginary lines is entirely abdominal, & is called the Umbilical Region, & its lateral parts we have to call the Flanks. The next division is of all the Abdomen that is below the last line; it is a triangular space made by the imaginary above, & the sloping bony brim of the Pelvis below, & called the Hypogastric Region, the very lowest part of it is called the Region of the Pelvis. The upper end of the Os Sacrum is immediately opposite to this last line; this Region comprehends the whole cavity of the Pelvis. We shall first consider the Thorax in general way. The Pleura adheres on its outside to the Ribs and Intercostal Muscles by cellular membrane, on its inside it is closely in contact with the lungs. It has been said, that there is always a quantity of air in the cavity of the Thorax, but it is very plain that there is not, for the pleura every where touches the surface of the lungs so as to have no space unfilled by them, & in letting out water from the Chest no Bubbles are seen in the body under water, & open the Chest, no Bubbles will be seen to rise thro' the water

water as it fills the cavity; upon opening the right & left side of the Thorax, it appears plainly that they make two cavities, one on each side not communicating, for between them is a Mediastinum made by the doubling of the Pleura & is very narrow. By cutting thro' the Breast bone between the last bone of the Sternum, the Xiphoid Cartilage, where the Cartilage of the last true Rib is inserted, we cut upon the lowest part of the Mediastinum without going into the cavity of the Abdomen. The Pleura is a reflected membrane, that part of it attached to the Sternum is called the Mediastinum, from the Sternum conceives it running upwards & backwards over the Pericardium covering the outer surface of the Lungs, the upper side of the Diaphragm, the Spine and the Ribs, uniting at the back part of the Thorax; this doubling of the Pleura at the back of the Thorax Dr Hunter calls the posterior Mediastinum. The old anatomists not understanding the nature of the reflected membrane, have called of the cavity of the Mediastinum, of trapping the Sternum to let out fluid from the cavity, but they had not, least foundation for saying so, for the double Pleura is so closely unitid as to appear but one membrane. The Pleura gives a smooth surface to & containing contained flecks of the Thorax; it is on these same membrane reflected over them, so that the walls of the Diaphragm & Ribs can touch nothing but Pleura. Behind the lungs the Pleura of the right & left side meeting make a complete partition between the right & left cavity preventing all communication with each other; this partition is thicker here than at the Sternum; within it the Aorta Descendens, Vena Azygos, & the Oesophagus are; the Aorta to the left of the Oesophagus, & on the right side of the Oesophagus runs the Vena Azygos, all these lie in cellular membrane between the reflected Thorax. The Pericardium is laid

The Pleura and Lung

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is tied to the Sternum by δ Mediastinum, the Lungs are connected on this insides to δ Pericardium & to δ Spine backward, by δ posterior Mediastinum. The Middle part of δ Thorax content are so bound down by δ Sternum, Diaphragm & Spine, that they have but little motion. The Lungs naturally play upon δ Pleura for pleura upon pleura for δ Lung is according with it but in disease, in inflammation for instance, there is often a粘液 substance thrown out between them which gradually grows & muscular δ vessels generally run directly from one to the other, the Lung & Pleura are thus united by a vascular substance similar to cellular membrane, which by δ motion of δ Lung & Pleura is drawn out to a small length like a Pigment. These adhesions are very often numerous. The Lung (for one speaking of it on one side we shall call it Lung, & in speaking of both sides in general we shall call them Lungs) lies naturally loose in each cavity, except at δ Middle of inside where it is connected to the pericardium, this part is called the Root of δ Lung & is the Center of Ramification; A branch of δ Trachea divides δ great pulmonary artery, & a pair of pulmonary veins enter it here, every where else it is unconnected however it contained part, the Pericardium, Diaphragm, Ribs, Spine, Sternum & Mediastinum. The Diaphragm is convex above toward δ Thorax, below toward δ Abdomen. It is concave, in Expiration it moves up & draws δ Root of δ Lung, in Inspiration it moves down, enlarges the cavity of δ Chest & δ Air distends the Lungs. Water collected in δ Pleura makes δ Dropsy of the Chest, it is a common disease, but we can seldom or never say absolutely that δ disease is present, because δ same symptoms may arise.

The Pleura Lungs & Heart

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may arise from other causes. By reason of δ Mediastinum there may be a collection of fluid on one side of δ Chest, & not on the other; when there is a fluid, it cannot be felt by a fluctuation as in δ abdomen, because δ Pleura is every where flat, & tight between δ Ribs. Water cannot get out of δ Chest into δ Cellular Membrane of δ Lungs, because the Pleura every where covers & containing δ contained parts. The Mediastinum may serve as propria of a ligament to δ Pericardium to keep δ heart in its place, & to make a double cavity in the Thorax. The advantage of a double cavity is evident, for when one cavity is perforated, it happens that when the Patient is attempting to breath, the lung of that side collapses in consequence of δ air rushing thro' δ wound, & destroying δ Vacuum within, but on δ other side Respiration is carried on uninterruptedly.

The Heart in its pericardium lies upon δ Diaphragm immediately under δ Sternum & Mediastinum. From accumulation of fat about the Heart Respiration is often performed with difficulty, especially if exercise be used; A young lady very corpulent whose a month of lying in was up; upon any exertion had such a difficulty of Respiration come on frequently as to endanger Suffocation, & in one of these fits she died. Mr. Middleton opened her body & found δ Heart surrounded with a lump of fat. The fat in δ abdomen had pressed δ Diaphragm upwards to push δ Heart & Lungs into δ very upper part of δ Chest, and thereby disturbing δ circulation was δ cause of her death. Similar to this case was that of δ late Lord Portlocke, who died after hastily stooping to reach δ poker to stir δ fire; his death too was occasioned by fat.

The Heart &c

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by fat in the lungs in a fatter person have never any fat about them. The Heart lies very nearly in the middle of the body, immediately behind the second bone of the Sternum (very little more to the left than the right side) that is from the connection of the second Rib down to the seventh enclosed in the Pericardium, which appears of greater bulk upwards, where it is fastened to the great vessels, it touches the Pericardium every where so that there is no empty space between them. The Pericardium always contains a little water, internally it is a smooth polished membrane which is reflected over the heart, so that the Liquor Pericardii touches only this membrane, if an attempt is made to remove it, the liquor is naturally coagulated as may be seen by opening a body just dead, but after the body has for sometime, the liquor becomes bloody, by the blood transuding to it. The liquor found in most bodies is only partly coagulated by heat, the greatest part of it remains fluid. The Anterior part of the heart is loose, so is the lower part it makes a flat surface for the Diaphragm, but behind it is fixed by the great vessels to the Pericardium, it lies rather transversely across the body its flat side resting on the Diaphragm from the Ribs to the Apex, the apex points towards the left side, the external membrane of the Pericardium is reflected entirely over the heart, which has given rise to a Conundrum or Question, whether the heart lies within or without the Pericardium. The Pericardium is connected anteriorly to the Mediasinum, below to the Diaphragm, behind above to the great vessels. The use of the Pericardium is to enclose the heart, but this is not the only use it serves, for the Pleura would have done this as well, Nature has given it to fix the heart in the body, so that it might keep it steady in its motion, & prevent the vessels being twisted by its getting out of

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The Pericardium, & Peritoneum.

out of its place, for it is fixed to the median sinew before, below & laterally to the Diaphragm & behind to the Spine. When the Diaphragm moves down in deep Inspiration, it pulls the Pericardium, but so as not sensibly to affect the vessels passing thro' it from the heart, & if we make a straining effort to Inspiration when the body is upright, the pulse in the left wrist ceases to be felt, & the left subclavian artery goes off in a straighter course from the Aorta than the others, & when the Pericardium is pulled down by the Diaphragm, this artery is stretched & tightened so as to give no sensible pulsation along its course. It has been said that Hedge-hog has no Pericardium, but Dr. Hunter has dissected an animal & finds that it has. Sometimes the Pericardium is found to have contracted adhesions to the Heart, now & then occasionally that some bodies have been suspected to have wanted a pericardium, but it is never wanting tho' it is sometimes firmly & tenaciously adhering to the Heart, the reason why this adhesion is not so commonly met with as that between the Lungs & the Liver is because of the continual motion of the Heart, & because inflammation here will soon prove fatal. So much for the Thorax & its contents in a general way. The Peritoneum covers & contains & containing parts of the Abdomen. Three ligaments are accended to the Abdomen which appear by rising of the Peritoneum; the upper Umbilical Ligament, which was a vein in the Foetus, coming in at the Navel & running up to the Liver at the great fossa before; from the Navel downwards on each side, which were the Umbilical Arteries giving to the internal iliac Arteries, & between these sometimes appears what was the Utricle from the bladder in the Foetus. We must make a little allowance for the viscera being somewhat higher when the body is supine. Under the Serobiculum cordis in the right Hypochondrium & Epigastrium

The Peritoneum &c

Epigastric Region lies of Liver, the stomach is covered by it except a little of its lower part. The Epiloor depends from of lower part of of stomach chiefly, and as it goes down of flexure of the Colon adheres to of inside; its lower edge is down in the cavity of of Pelvis, it covers all of Intestines before. The small intestines are fixed to the loins by the Mucosity. The Colon is fixed to the loins by what is called Mesocolon. The Rectum is fixed to the Os Sacrum & Coccyx by Cellular Membrane, and is commonly surrounded in of Pelvis by a great quantity of fat. The small intestines possess a great part of of general cavity of the Abdomen, & fill the Pelvis. When the Rectum a lower end of of Colon is full of hard Feces, as it sometimes is, we can feel them in a thin body lying on it, back, by pressing with of hand above the Os Pubis, towards the lower part of of Spine & Os Sacrum, the Peritoneum encloses the abdominal viscera twice, once loosely by lining of abdominal cavity & once closely by being reflected over of Viscera & forming their external coat, so that the water collected in of Abdomen that makes the Ascites, touches nothing but Peritoneum and cannot get out

The Throate, Neck &c

Lecture 45

We shall go again over the Throate making some alteration from what was said before: - The two Pleura that make of Mediastinum at the upper part fly off & make a Triangular space between them by their dividing from one another; In this space the Thymus Gland & ² Throat is lodged before of great Vessels in the upper part of the Conarium partly in the Neck, this Gland wastes in the Adult, & the space contain only cellular Membrane. The Vena Cava Superior is within, but the Vena Cava Inferior is without it, they go the right ventricle of the Heart, the Aorta lies to the left of them & goes to the left Ventricle, the Pulmonary Artery lies to the left of the Aorta & backward, goes to the right Ventricle; this bunch of great Vessels is what lies between the two Lobes of the Lungs at the Superior part of the Conarium partly within & partly without. In the Angle before, made by the head of Neck lies of Basis of the R. V. Hyoides, below it is of Ponsum Adami, below this the Cricoid Cartilage is placed, & from the Cricoid Cartilage lies the Thyroid or Bronchial Gland a little way down the Trachea Arteria, anteriorly where the great Gland lies upon the Trachea Arteria, it is small, it runs backward, on each side lying upward, & downward & is longer & broader & lies directly upon the Carotid Artery, jugular Vein, & P. & V. vagum, these lie upon the Vertebra, for a Father has this Gland continued to the Thymus, so that they both seem to be but one; sometimes it is enlarged & makes the Guttal Tumidum, this Gland is particularly large in Women when we perform Bronchotomy (which is commonly done by opening the Trachea under the Cricoid Cartilage between it & the first ring) in a short neck particularly in Women, & when the Gland is large we necessarily

necessarily cut thro' the Gland to divide the Veins, so that of Hemorrhage is very troublesome, it is exceedingly vascular & is called a gland, but whether or no it is a glandular body we are not certain. Aneurisms were often supposed to happen in the Neck to Women from their violent straining in Child birth, they were often observed to have a Tumour with pulsation of the forepart of the Neck, & these cases were adjudged to be Aneurisms of the Carotid Artery; but this was a Mistake, for the Gland is very often enlarged especially in young Women & makes a Tumour in the Neck & being hardened it takes a strong stroke from the Artery, so as to be mistaken for an Aneurism. To distinguish this disease from an Aneurism proceed in this Manner, presupposing a Tumour backwards of your will feel of pulsation, then place of fingers on the side of the Tumour & raise it, & if it is not an Aneurism there will be no pulsation felt, while it is raised up, & if the Tumour is not from an Aneurism but from an enlargement of this Gland only, it will go up with a jerk in Degustation, because in swelling of the Gland goes up with the Trachea Arteria & Cartilages of the Larynx. Dr Hunter of all Aneurisms he has ever seen never saw one in the Neck. The Trachea Arteria runs down from the Thyroid Cartilage to the Thorax thus; first it runs behind the left Subclavian Vein & the common trunk of the right subclavian & Carotid Artery, lower down it is behind the Aorta & Vena Cava Superior, it is Basis of the Heart & it divides into two Branches, that which goes to the right lobe of the Lungs passes behind the Vena Cava Superior, that which goes to the left lobe passes under the curvature of the Aorta. The Aorta Thoracica goes directly behind the Trachea Arteria, immediately upon & close to the Veins of the Thorax which we call the Posterior Mediastinum.

The Oesophagus, Diaphragm & Liver

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Mediastinum all the way down on the middle forepart of the Spine, having
the Vena Azygos on the right side, that gives veins between all the Ribs, &
comes from the Vena Cava Superior; on its left side lies the Vena Descendens.
The Oesophagus lies close to the Spine between the Pericardium under
the Heart, then gets a little to the left side of the body to pass thro' the
fissure in the Diaphragm. The Heart has an Oesophagus in which a
Half-crown Piece is sticking just behind the Heart. The Diaphragm
is attached to the inner margin of the Chest about an Inch above it to
make room for the attachment of the Transversalis muscle of the Abdomen.
The fibres of the Lungs are in a manner connected to it. We come now to the
abdominal viscera none of which are attached to the forepart of the
abdomen, except the Liver, which is only by a ligament or fold of the
Peritoneum from the Diaphragm going round which was the Umbilical
Vein in the Father to the Diaphragm again, called the Salsiform ligament.
The Liver lies immediately under the Diaphragm, has a convex surface
adapted to that of the Diaphragm & abdominal muscles; it is divided
by an anterior notch into a right & left Lobe, the right which is the largest
fills up the whole Epigastric Region & Hypochondrium of the right side;
the left is the smaller & possesses part of the Epigastric Region;
the underside of the Liver is concave, the concave surface of the right lobe
is not perfectly smooth; it lies upon the Kidney & has the Gall-bladder
& Duodenum under & behind it; the concave surface of the other lobe
is smooth & lies upon the Stomach. The little Hypophysis of Winslow goes
upwards & backward, the Liver is firmly connected to the Diaphragm.
The Stomach lies in the left Hypochondrium, its larger end called
Cardia begins from the Oesophagus underneath the Diaphragm, then
goes

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The Spleen and Mesentery

goes downward making a Turn, crosses & projection of the spine & terminates in the Duodenum at a smaller end called the Gastrocolic. The spleen lies under the stomach's greater extremity upon the Diaphragm, these two viscera possessing some space on either side, as the liver does on the right. As we call that which connects the small Intestines to the Liver's Mesentery & that which connects the Colon to the Liver's Mesocolon, it is better to call that thin membrane running to the Liver from the upper part of the stomach by the name of Mesogasterion, instead of the little Epiploa as Winslow calls it. The Mesogasterion covers the Lobulus Spigelii, so that it may be seen thro' this Membrane behind; the Gall-ducts go down by it to the Duodenum, nearly a bunch of vessels that enter the Liver it makes a cavity with only one aperture in it by a natural hole in this place & this cavity extends over the Stomach, the place where this bunch enters is called the Porta or gates of the Liver by the Greeks & it was said, the Priest who examined the entrails of a Victim at a Ceremony for telling future events, observed the Liver in this place particularly. The Epiploa is fixed to the Stomach, from whence it turns up to the Duodenum, which goes down to the right Kidney thro' the Mesocolon to the root of the Mesentery, to the part of the Duodenum may be said to be going down, then it gets turned up by going under the root of the Mesentery over the projection of the spine; the Duodenum is nowhere loose or floating, but is every where bound down, as soon as it becomes loose it is called Jejunum, the Mesentery begins here. The small Intestines are three, the Duodenum, Jejunum & Ileum. The general bulk of the Jejunum is in the cavity of the Abdomen; as the gut goes on it takes the name of Ileum at no determinate point however the general bulk of the Ileum possesses the cavity of the Pelvis, the gut grows larger at the upper edge of the right Ileum, here the large intestines begin, the first of which is the Colon. The Colon runs upon the right side over the Kidney & Psoa, & crosses the some part of the Liver.

The Mesentery and Intestines

Liver, then turns from right Hypochondrium & runs across ^{great} body to the left, as it goes across it passes under ^{great} curvature of ^{great} stomach, then it goes downwards & backwards to ^{great} lower end of ^{great} spine to form the Rectum. The Colon almost surrounding ^{great} small Intestines & Rectum lying in ^{great} Pelvis. We see in what universal a manner ^{great} warmth of ^{great} glyster will be diffus'd over ^{great} small Intestines, for ^{great} whole Colon may be filled with a glyster injected up ^{great} Rectum. The Mesentery is a fold of ^{great} Peritoneum from ^{great} Loin going over ^{great} small Intestines & to the Loin again, at the Colon it is very broad, at the two terminations of this fold this it, it is narrow, it is called here Mesocolon & is plainly a continuation of ^{great} Peritoneum ^{great} of Mesentery, between ^{great} fold of the Vessels run to ^{great} Intestines. The Epiplooon is convoluted before to ^{great} curvature of ^{great} stomach & runs upon ^{great} left side to the Spleen between ^{great} Colon; from its connection with ^{great} stomach we see in reason why in a stranguulated Hernia ^{great} patient complains greatly of his Stomach, it is caused by a little bit of ^{great} Epiplooon getting down into ^{great} Hernial Sac & dragging down ^{great} stomach. In this case when we operate, to set ^{great} part free, it is a general rule with Surgeons to spread out ^{great} Epiplooon to see that we do not cut off or tie ^{great} any Intestine with it when we cut off, or make a ligature upon it, for ^{great} danger from wounding ^{great} Colon which is ^{great} Intestine generally protruded in a Hernia would be very great. The Epiplooon is a bag of ^{great} Peritoneum in ^{great} Sack, but in an adult or soon after ^{great} Child is born, ^{great} cavity is filled up by ^{great} sides uniting together, ^{great} each side of this bag is a doubling of ^{great} Peritoneum, so that ^{great} Epiplooon is made originally of four folds of ^{great} Peritoneum.

Lecture, 1.6

We shall go over δ Abdomen again & begin with δ Liver; what is called the left ligament of δ Liver is nothing more than δ left extremity of the general connection of this Viscus to the Diaphragm by δ Plastomium; what is called δ right ligament is nothing more than δ right extremity of the general connection to the Diaphragm, on this side it is farther back & less conspicuous than on the other. On δ right side δ Liver goes as far back as δ Abdomen goes, & hangs pretty low down, on δ left side it don't go so far back nor hang so low, & has δ Stomach & Spleen connected with it behind. The Vena Cava Inferior lies on δ right side of δ Spine just below δ Diaphragm & turns thro' a notch in δ Liver. The great Vessels of δ Liver go from δ Root of δ Mesentery at δ Spine obliquely upwards and pass over δ Lobules Spigelii; upon δ Lobules Spigelii is seen δ great bunch of Vessels which go into δ Ports of δ Liver; it is made of the Hepatic Artery, δ Vena Portarum Hepaticarum & δ Hepatic duct that makes δ Ductus Communis Choledochus. The Vena Cava Inferior lies behind the Lobules Spigelii, & immediately below it sends off δ emergent Veins; The Lobules Spigelii lies immediately before δ right side Diaphragm.

The Asophagus, as soon as it gets thro' δ Notch in δ Diaphragm before the Spine, turns about to δ left to be continued into the large end of the Stomach. The Spleen is joined to δ posterior part of δ great extremity of δ Stomach & gives vessels to it. Next the stomach it has a concave surface adapted to δ concavity of that Viscus, where it lies against the Diaphragm its surface is concave to be adapted to δ concavity of that Partition. Its two ends lie upwards & downward obliquely, its lower end resting on δ kidney, its upper end touching the Spine; its posterior surface is connected to δ spine of kidney of δ left side.

The Duodenum

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Side by Cellular Membrane. Before $\hat{\eta}$ projection of $\hat{\eta}$ Spine in $\hat{\eta}$ Stomach just in $\hat{\eta}$ angle between $\hat{\eta}$ Mesocolon & Mesentery, $\hat{\eta}$ great Mesenteric Vessel goes down, $\hat{\eta}$ artery on $\hat{\eta}$ left, $\hat{\eta}$ vein on $\hat{\eta}$ right, they branch in the Mesentery to the same Intestines & go up to $\hat{\eta}$ Colon by branching in $\hat{\eta}$ Mesocolon. These branch in $\hat{\eta}$ Cellular Membrane that connects $\hat{\eta}$ doubling of $\hat{\eta}$ Peritoneum & spread over $\hat{\eta}$ Intestines, along with them $\hat{\eta}$ nerves go $\hat{\eta}$ Lymphatic & vessels which pass thro' Lymphatic Glands in their course from $\hat{\eta}$ Gut. The Duodenum begins at $\hat{\eta}$ right extremity of $\hat{\eta}$ Stomach at the Pylorus; the commencement of $\hat{\eta}$ One of $\hat{\eta}$ end of $\hat{\eta}$ other is known by a Stricture, it first arises up then turns downwards, then backward, passes over $\hat{\eta}$ Kidney of $\hat{\eta}$ right side & goes thro' $\hat{\eta}$ Mesocolon; here we lose sight of it, but by turning up $\hat{\eta}$ Mesocolon we gain sight of it again & see it crossing the Spine to $\hat{\eta}$ left side, $\hat{\eta}$ Vena Cavalis behind it where it goes thro' the Mesocolon, it crosses $\hat{\eta}$ spine behind $\hat{\eta}$ root of $\hat{\eta}$ Mesentery of $\hat{\eta}$ Vessel, then emerges, becomes loose, & acquires a Mesentery, & then $\hat{\eta}$ Gut takes the name of $\hat{\eta}$ Ileum, so that $\hat{\eta}$ Duodenum takes a circular course from $\hat{\eta}$ Stomach to $\hat{\eta}$ Spine, to $\hat{\eta}$ concave part of $\hat{\eta}$ the right end of the Pancreas is fixed. There are two reasons why $\hat{\eta}$ Duodenum is fixed & has no Mesentery, first because $\hat{\eta}$ other Intestines that have a Mesentery are loose, & fall down by their weight & if $\hat{\eta}$ Duodenum had had a Mesentery it would have been loose & fallen down as $\hat{\eta}$ others, in consequence of which would have been, that $\hat{\eta}$ Stomach would have been continually disordered from being pulled down with it; secondly because if it had had a Mesentery so as to have fallen down when $\hat{\eta}$ body was erect, the Galle Ducts would have been stretched & $\hat{\eta}$ flowing of $\hat{\eta}$ bile into the intestine.

The Pancreas, Vena Portarum &c

intestines would of course very nowy then have been prevented. To avoid these accidents it is that $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum is firmly bound to the part by which it runs, & is not connected to $\frac{1}{2}$ Spleen as $\frac{1}{2}$ other Intestines are. Winslow describes a great & little Pancreas, but they are only two lobes of one & of same gland. The Pancreas lies $\frac{1}{2}$ a Spine behind the Stomach, the greater part of it is on $\frac{1}{2}$ left side, making what Winslow calls a great Pancreas, we $\frac{1}{2}$ great lobe, its end touches the Spleen & $\frac{1}{2}$ great Splanchnic Vein runs along its lower part to that Vessel, & Spleen is very behind its upper part; it is a flat gland, one flat surface lying towards $\frac{1}{2}$ back, & other towards $\frac{1}{2}$ Stomach, its left extremity lies upwards & backwards & lies very far back in $\frac{1}{2}$ Abdomen, its right extremity lies forward and downwards & does not go so far back as $\frac{1}{2}$ other; where it lies $\frac{1}{2}$ a Spine, it is very narrow to allow room for $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesenteric Vessel, when it has got across $\frac{1}{2}$ Mesenteric Vessel it grows larger & ends down a process which fills up $\frac{1}{2}$ concavity of $\frac{1}{2}$ Duodenum that otherwise would be vacant, this is $\frac{1}{2}$ little Pancreas of Winslow. There is one Duct to the whole gland, which opens into the Duodenum.

In $\frac{1}{2}$ Mucosity of Mesocolon are Veins bringing back blood from $\frac{1}{2}$ Guts, these are very where called Vena Portarum, because they carry $\frac{1}{2}$ blood to $\frac{1}{2}$ Porta of branching into $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver distributing blood to all part of it. This is a singularity in $\frac{1}{2}$ general circulation for instead of carrying its blood to $\frac{1}{2}$ Vena Cava as other do, the Vena Portarum carries it to $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver; it resembles a Tree having its Roots on the Mesocolon, & branches make one Trunk which passes under the Pancreas, where it receives $\frac{1}{2}$ Vena Splanchnic $\frac{1}{2}$ then enters $\frac{1}{2}$ Porta. The Duct of $\frac{1}{2}$ Liver receives $\frac{1}{2}$ Duct of the Gall-bladder into it, passes down behind the Duodenum and unites with $\frac{1}{2}$ Pancreatic duct.

The Abdominal Viscera.

duct; which commonly enter by one common orifice into the Duodenum close to the Pancreas at the lower part of a longitudinal ridge on the inside of the gut, having now done with the general description of the Viscera in Sito, we need come to the description of each particular Viscera at they appear in dissection, as is Abdominal Viscera sooner putrid than the Thoracic, we shall begin with them first, & because that putrefaction soon spoils the whole, we shall give only a sketch of them anatomically, & when the whole of them are gone, we shall speak of them Physiologically. The greatest of the Viscera of the Abdomen is the Alimentary Tube, the others are only appendages to it. It begins at the Pharynx, from this the Oesophagus is continued down, which we shall begin with, then it becomes Stomach, from this the Intestines arise, three small ones, call'd Duodenum, Jejunum & Ileum, & three large ones, the Cæcum, Colon & Rectum which ends at the Anus. This Tube is fixed in some parts, in others it is loose & has a smooth external surface, it has only two proper coats, for the Peritoneal coat is not general. The outer coat is muscular & made of external longitudinal & internal circular fibres, the inner coat is a shaggy membrane call'd Serosa & Villæ from the Villæ that compose the shaggy appearance, it is of a very close texture of nerves to prevent evaporation as the Intestinal Membrane of the Blood Vessels does in the living body. Anatomists have descended another coat between these two, by some of them call'd cellular, by others a nervous coat but it is nothing but cellular membrane connecting the two together. As soon as the Oesophagus gets thro' the Diaphragm, it dilates a little & is contained into the Stomach. It does not lie in much cellular

The Alimentary Tube

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Cellular Membrane as it is fixed by the parts themselves through which it passes is but small. The Muscular Coat is very strong, the external longitudinal fibres are stronger than the internal circular ones; within side is muscular in Pillows Coat, it is so loosely connected with the Muscular Coat that it may be pinched up, if a piece of it cut off without engaging that, it is made rough & shaggy by the Villi which are short & exceedingly vascular. In the Oesophagus there is a Cuticle but Dr Hunter never could find anything like this appearance in the Stomach by keeping &c. That it is cuticle is very evident, for every thing else but this is vascular & may be injured it is perfectly inorganic. As the Cuticle on the external parts is sometimes thickened & diseased, we may suppose that this may sometimes be so too. Dr Hunter has a considerable piece of this Cuticle thickened, which was torn up, it tore without any fibrous appearance & appeared in every respect like the External Cuticle

The Stomach

Picture 47

The Stomach begins at the lower end of the Oesophagus, which is dilated gradually; where the Stomach begins it is called Cardia, & by some the inappropriately superior or left orifice; it ends at the Duodenum at what is called the pylorus, by some, as inappropriately, as of the left, or inferior or right orifice; it resembles a Bag-pipe; the upper concave part between the two orifices is called the little curvature. The Rectum is stretched over each side of it & makes its external covering, & this Membrane from it two wider meeting at the great curvature. Some is Epiploone, its muscular coat is strongest at the Cardia & little curvature, & again faintly a continuation of the longitudinal fibres of the Oesophagus; for where it is narrowest the muscular coat is thickest and vice versa. The muscular coat is composed externally of longitudinal fibres & internally of circular ones, but both these are blended together. The inner or Villous coat is loosely connected to the muscular by Cellular Membrane. When a Stomach is opened that has been distended, this coat is found smooth in proportion to the distension, but if opened without being distended, then it will always be found thrown into Rugae, because this coat ~~cannot~~ cannot contract & therefore when the muscular coat is contracted it throws this into Rugae, which appears to be circular, longitudinal or both according to a different contraction of the different muscular fibres; & Rugae are not permanent but made entirely of the loose Villous coat, & if this is made even by distension of the Stomach, & it appears rough & draggy by means of the Villi interspersed throughout. We are not sure that there are any islands in the inner coat of the Stomach as we are in the Intestines especially in large ones. The Vessels come to the Stomach at the little

The Stomach

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little & great curvature, & anastomose with each other. The arterie of
veins run every where together, at the Cardia there is nothing
material; at the Pylorus there is a doubling of the inner coat that makes a
ring somewhat tubular determining precisely the end of the Stomach &
beginning of the Intestines, it projects a little way into the Duodenum,
as is received by it like as the other Utter is formed of; inner Membrane
of the Utter & is received by the Vagina, it is a perfect Valve for
& Rile often comes up in vomiting, & place where the Stomach ends & the
Duodenum begins is easily known by a Picture, above which the
Stomach is thick & immediately below is the thin. The Small
Intestines are three, the Duodenum, Jejunum & Ileum. We shall
first describe a small Intestine generally & afterwards touch the
peculiarities of the three. It is thrown into the circular figure by
being attached to the Invaginatus, which is immediately at its concave
part, its external covering is a continuation of Peritoneum, except
at that where the Invaginatus is attached to it. This Intestine has
not any fat upon it even in the fatter bodies. Its muscular Coat is
composed of external longitudinal & internal circular fibres connected
to the inner coat by cellular Membrane, the inner coat is Villous, &
loose so as to form Pinge, which are permanent, called Valvulae
Coniunctives, but as Druyer observes, they are not valves, as they
allow passage both ways, these are permanent; those in
the Stomach are only occasional, this evident use is to
enlarge the internal surface of the Intestine for the purpose of
secretion & absorption, so that the inner coat is as long as if the gut
was twice or three times as long as it is, the inner coat is shaggy and
esundering

The Intestines

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exceeding vascular, frequently there is an appearance in the inner membrane of the intestine, which we take to be glandular, as they are glands sometimes diseased, thickened, indurated, & even ulcerated all up & down, of intestine. In some bodies they shall appear very numerous, in others you shall hardly see one. The vessels come from the mesentery, while in the mesentery they anastomose greatly, but there is no appearance of anastomosing in the intestine. The arteries & veins run together & besides these there are pectenals & lymphatic vessels which are best considered separately. The peculiarities of the small intestine are these, & duodenum has nothing peculiar except that it has no mesentery, but mesentery begins on the intestine of jejunum, begins. The jejunum differs from the ileum in that it has valvula conniventes, which is other wise it is not, & of course it is thicker & has more blood carried to it than of ileum because of a greater quantity of inner coat, which is very vascular. There is no mark by which to tell where jejunum ends & ileum begins for the valvula conniventes don't disappear suddenly, but diminish insensibly. Winslow attempted to determine this point by measurement, saying that of the length between the duodenum & caecum, one was two fifths, & the other three fifths, but however, this may do in dead bodies, & more can be applied to the living. The caecum, colon & rectum form a large portion of the intestinal canal. Its beginning is largest of all, then it decreases as it goes along to the end of the ileum, when it gets down to the colon it grows large again at the caecum is a valve so that nothing can pass from it large to small intestines. The muscular coat of the colon makes 3 longitudinal bands, which pull up the intestine into several concavities on its side called & cells of colon. The colon makes a greater part of large intestines & differ from small ones in that

The Intestines

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in that it has little fatty bodies upon it, & inner coat is hollow, but the villi are very short & few. The place where is cæcum ends & Colon begins is not distinctly known, for & male intestine goes into the large intestine not in the middle but on one side as in membranous parts of it another does into the bulbous, as if one side of the gut was dilated. It is this large part that is generally understood to be a cæcum, & behind it is appendice cæci vermiformis, it is a small tube opening into the gut near & valves, & its lumen is terminate in a blind point. The Colon seems as tho' it were a continuation of it, for muscular bands all come from it. Some have said that this Appendice is what was meant by & Cæcum, & that it is a true cæcum, but this cannot be, for from the earliest ages of Anatomy, the Intestines have been divided into the smaller, the large & cæcum has always been reckoned as one of the large, but this Appendice is a very small part of them. The valve of the Colon, called & valve of Sulpicius, is like that of the Duodenum, & produces a kind of inner membrane received into the cæcum, going however much farther into the cæcum, than any other does into the duodenum; its sides by coming into contact with each other, act as a valve. The Rectum has two bands of muscular fibres, one before, & other behind, these are very strong & by their action constringe the gut to discharge its feces all at once. Having considered of alimentary tube anatomically, we need come to consider the Appendages, & Spleen, Pancreas, Liver, preserving the physiology of both till after we have gone thro' the female organs of generation.

The Spleen & Pancreas.

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Lecture 48

The Spleen has an Artery from the Celiac, a Vein from the Vena Portarum; It is said that the blood does not coagulate in the Spleen's Vein, but it does as much as in any other; besides the Intestinal Peritoneal Coat, it has a capsular covering of its own, independent of the Peritoneum, & is not to be separated from the Spleen without tearing up along with it little pieces of the Parenchyma, or fleshy substance, which is very soft, and porous; the opposite sides of the capsular Coat are united by little ligamentous bands, that make a fine reticulation all thro' the body of the Spleen - Dr. Sykes supposed that all its substance was vascular, that every small piece of Parenchyma was a concretion of minute arteries. How its Veins are disposed has not been thought to be known, the general opinion is that they terminate in cells, thin holes; but it is not proved - the vessels are vaster than those of the heart, & with the gentlest handling the substance is soon reduced to a fluid from the blood, & has a great number of sympathetic vessels. Its size is not known.

The Pancreas like the Spleen soon grows tender & fleshy, between its great lobes, it is small to allow the Vena Porta to pass under it; now when it has a little portion hanging to it besides the two lobes - it has one center of ramification, but veins divide it every part to the Duct passing along the middle of the narrow part of it to the Duodenum, & commonly opens into it, with the Ductus communis Choledochus by one common bifurc., sometimes by a separate bifurc., & then always divides into two branches, & ends on to unite with the Gall duct of the other into the Duodenum by itself, for the broad part however it unites with the Ductus communis Choledochus just as it is passing the junctions & opens by one common bifurc. - The Lobulus Spigelii lies just against the side of the Spleen - The Superior part of this is united to the Centrum Tendinosum of the Diaphragm; on the right & left side of it, when the Lobulus Spigelii, & body of the liver is transverse, it is the Porta

The Liver

The Porto, where the principal Vessels enter at the Anterior part, is another fissure, where the remains of the Ventricle Liver is fast which runs this part of the Liver to the Cardiostomum, a little of this Canal is sometimes found in an adult. — On a fissure on the left side of the Lobules Spiculæ is the remains of the Ductus Venosus going from the Vena Portorum to the Vena Cava, & in a fissure on the right side of the Lobules Spiculæ the Vena Cava passes, & there is a dent in the Cardiostomum of the great Liver, for the Gall Bladder to lie in. — The Peritoneal Coat is easily separated from the substance of the Liver, & leaves the Surface tolerably smooth. — The Vessels of the Liver are, first the Hepatic Artery, which enters it near the Porto, bringing Blood to it; The Mesenteric Veins, & Spleen join to make the Trunk of the Vena Portorum, which divides into a right, & left branch, that go to the right, & left Lobe; this Vein is the Star in the Fader, but has a Vein coming into it from the Navel, from it goes to the left Vena Cava Hepatica. — The Ductus Communis Choledochus from the Duodenum divides into two branches, one the Hepatic Duct that goes to the Liver, the other the Cystic which goes to the Gall Bladder; at the Porto then there enters the Hepatic Artery, the Vena Portorum, the Ductus Hepaticus, the nerves in Pleasures, and the Lymphatic Vessels, & this one centre of Ramification. — There is another centre of Ramification from all parts of the Liver to the Vena Cava posterior where it passes through the fissure just under the Diaphragm. — The Blood brought to the Liver is carried back by Veins, which open principally by two branches into the Vena Cava, & to wit, the Vena Cava Hepatica dextra, & sinistra; just as it is coming from the Diaphragm there are some other smaller branches, & sometimes a considerable one from the Lobules Spiculæ, but the two first are the principal. — Dr. Glyson, and Bonadonno to whom he has taken up an opinion of these being a muscular Sheath enclosing the Trunks of the Vessels at the Porto, and giving off Covering to the branches, called Caputula Glysonica, but it is nothing more than cellular.

The Liver

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Cellular Membrane made harder by Plethora of Nerves that run into it.
The Parenchyma of the Liver was supposed to be a porous Mass, into which
the Blood was effused, lying between the Arteries of the Liver, Ruyech
thought the whole was vascular, but Albinus who had Ruyech's prep-
arations & Observations, and injected as well as himself, is of opinion that
it is not wholly vascular. The Gall Bladder may be considered as an
appendix to the Liver to receive the bile; the Cystic Duct which comes from it
is twisted up first upon the body of the Gall Bladder, & then turns down, it
lies in a Concavity connected with the Liver, of the Peritoneum is stretched over
the part of it which don't adhere to the Liver, it has the outer Cover of the
Liver continued over it; We conclude that it must have muscular fibers
forming a muscular coat, for Mr John Hunter observes that in live Animals
the Bladder is always contracted over the quantity of bile it contains,
but little, or none, and their Action the same as the Intestines.
The cellular membrane called Tunica Villosa is rather honey-combed than
shaggy, & its use is to Excrete in the living body.

Dec. 1. 9th

The Female Organs of Generation

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Lecture 49th

The Genital parts of Women are liable to many Varieties of different Disease, in examining it, it is much better to do it by the hand alone, but if it should be necessary to have Ocular Examination, it ought to be done with One Glance of the Eye & I were, for it were a Woman a great Deal to bear Repetitions, and delicate as possible a Surgeon therefore should make himself perfect Master of the Appearance of the Parts, both to the Tongue & Eye, that he may be able to conceive every thing of this kind with facility - If a Woman is lean, the Os Pubis always projects greatly, if she is fat, then the Bone is always covered with a thick cushion of fat; this rising on the Pubis is called Mons Veneris, it has no particular boundaries, below this we go downwards as the Labia then the Perineum, then the Anus, and then what Dr Hunter calls the posterior Perineum. The Labia when the Legs & Thighs are close to one another are both together, they arise from themons Veneris, above & before, and their extensities are invariably, but towards the Anus, they are covered with the common Indumenta of Hair as well as the Mons Veneris, but when they touch one another, they are without hair, they are every little more than the doubling of Skin, ^{by a fine insinuation} from the Mons Veneris dividing into a kind of fissure; the passage leading to the Vagina is not exactly in the middle length, but it is under the symphysis of the Os Pubis, which reaches two Fuids down behind the Labia, throwing the Labia aside, in the living body all that surface which appears is red & to a rough Eye, seems like raw flesh, it is covered with an exceeding fine Insensibility. In this Situation of the parts upwards, and from the Symphysis of the Os Pubis is seen a projecting ledge, coming out very small, & increasing as it goes down, this is called the Clitoris, it has either a rounded Eye called Glans Clitoridis, which is covered by a Lippe made by the Skin

The Female Organs of Generation.

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The Skin of the Labia; as it passes over from the One to the Other, is the same kind of mucus is secreted about the Clitoris, & about the Glans Penis in Variety of the more fluid part of it evaporating, it adheres to the Glans & Prepuce in an insipid & shiny Film as in Men; & has likewise that offensive Smell. The Clitoris lies supported by the bone, & don't hang so low down as the under part of the Ossea Pubis; it has no preparation similar to that in Men.

From the Glans Clitoridis on each side go down the Symptha, or Labia Interna, which touch One Another, & are of a red Colour, they may be considered as a Fold, or Doubling of the External Labia; at their upper end they are fixed to the Clitoris, & oppose a st always close together there, but they recede wider at the bottom when drawn aside; each Symptha at its upper part divides into two Folds, the anterior fold makes the Prepuce Clitoridis on one side, & the posterior, or inner One ties the Glans down underneath analogous to the Fratum Penis. In a Maid, the greatest part of the Symptha are situated on the outer side of the Symptha of the Ossea Pubis. In those who have born Children they hang somewhat lower; when these parts are kept covered from the Air by the Labia, & from friction, they are of a fresh red Colour, but when the Symptha project without the Labia, or otherwise exposed, they lose their red Colour & become of the colour of the Instruments on the outer side. The Clitoris has sometimes been so large, that with some people, it has been a Matter of doubt, whether the Person ought to be consider'd as a Man, or Woman; but it often hangs detached, then is its Glans perforated as the Penis is, so that we find not her State a Ground to say, of what Gender the Party is. Sometimes the Symptha are very large & long & give the Woman a great Deal of uneasiness of mind, but it is of no Consequence at all, by turning aside the Labia, the Symptha are gain sight of the Passage leading to the Vagina & Uterus. It don't lead in perpendicular from the Labia, but slants first downwards, & then the Vagina

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Vagina views upwards; all this beginning of the passage, that is so much of it as is without the place where the Hymen is attached, is smooth, all round; & in this differs from the Vagina; its depth in a contracted state may be half an inch, or an Inch, or more that is distended. The common passage has no particular name; we shall call it Vestibulum. The Vagina is rugous, it begins at the place where the Hymen is attached, & reaches as far as the Uterus. This passage divides into two, one leads to the Meatus Utrinarius, & the other lower to the Uterus. Close to the under part of the Symphysis of the Os pubis is a small granulated rough eminence of flesh, & on the forepart of it is the Meatus Utrinarius, or end of the Utricle cavity to be distinguished by the finger without seeing it; it is placed as high up as possible so as not to have gone thro' the bone; by feeling for this little eminence the Catheter may be introduced into the bladder with care, without hurting the Woman so far as not to make use of the eye, unless Difficulties are attend on it; & appearance by inflammation in as soon as the passage becomes rugous, the remains of the Hymen appear surrounding the beginning of the Vagina, like so many little eminences, call'd Cauicula, Imparfites, very apparent in Women that have had Children: The passage goes down behind upon the inside of the Perineum, & then mounts up-wards; on account of this bending passage, the Child head in birth comes down from the Uterus, & passes out the Perineum by lodging on the inside of it, the parts hereabout are all put on the stretch, the Uterus is always obcon to open, & the parts within are pressed against it; the greatest art of Midwifery is to support these parts, & prevent thereby the Child head from lacerating them at the time of a strong pain, for when once a laceration begins, it runs a great way, this being leaving a piece of Cloth or paper. The Vulva of Women are sometimes torn into two, the woman is rendered

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Virginity; but the entrance of the Vagina is always very narrow before the first
Cortion; whether a woman has had a child, or not, is generally known by the
Skin of the belly, for if she has had a child, it will remain August, & stained from
the Detention it suffered during Pregnancy, & if she never had a child, it will be
smooth & even; this mark tho' is fallacious, for Dr Hunter shew'd the body of a
Woman, the Skin of whose belly was smooth & uncoloured, and yet she never could
have had a Child, for there was a perfect Ypsilum within the Vaginal passage
which would not suffer the introduction of a finger. The same appearance of
the Skin may be occasioned by Drapery, but it was plain the Woman did
not die of that disease, yet it is highly probable she never had it; Thus far has
been described the common appearance of the External parts. The Anus is
surrounded by a Sphincter muscle as in the Male, of the Recto. Ani, & Transversus
Recti are just the same. The Sphincter Vaginae is but one circular muscle
leading up to the Cervix Utriculi, the Recto. Clitoridis of each side are
the same in their situation as the Recto. Peni on the Male. It has been
disputed whether or not the Vagina has any Sphincter, but Dr Hunter says, y
he knows it to be wanting. The Clitoris is made up of two Sponges, consisting
of Corpora Cavernosa like the Penis & Scrotum, but without any Corpus Spongiosum
externum. Under this there is an additional cover by the Sphincter
Vaginae called the Plicae Reticulam, which is filled with blood, at the
same time that the Clitoris is, it is a flat spongy body lying round the
beginning of the Vagina, a network of an inconceivable number of veins.
The Skin on the outside of the Sphincter Vaginæ is all full of little bodies
supposed to be the Glandular. Brgm. That secrete the mucus of those parts,
which mucus is analogous in every respect to that excreted by the Gland about
the Genitalia of the Male. By opening the Abdomen, & taking out the
Intestines, we have the following appearance in the Pelvis of the Female;
the Bladder is of the same shape as in the Male, & its broadest part is lowest,

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It lies close behind the Os Pubis, & when not distended is considerably below the upper edge of that bone; the Utrum, is backwards close upon the Os Sacrum, and as Credy says: these two do not differ in their Situation from what they are in the male; between them lies the Uterus low down in the Cavity of the Pelvis, covered with the Peritoneum, but so loosely connected as to admit of being drawn upwards above the symphysis of the Os Pubis, & appears like a protuberance of the Peritoneum. The two broad Segments of the Uterus are the Pectenium going off from the Fundus on each Side, & what ties the Uterus to the Side of the Pelvis. They make a compleat Partition that divides the bottom of the Pelvis, into an anterior, & posterior Cavity; in the Anterior the bladder sits, in the posterior the Utrum descends. The round Segments are a bundle or Pleas of Vessels that go from the Fundus Uteri before the former, & in an unengaged Uterus first go downwards then rise upward in the Pelvis, & go thro' the Abdominal muscle, as the Spermatic Vessels do; & are lost in the Membranes of Pubis.

In the Gravid Uterus they pass from above downwards to the opening in the muscle, for then the Fundus Uteri is raised with the Peritoneum above the Os Pubis; the 2nd of each broad Segment divides into two Folds, the Anterior contains the Fallopian Tube, which has a small Bursa at its Extremity surrounded with jagged Flesh in a foliated form, called the Mucous Diabolus of Dimbier; the posterior fold has the Ovarium lying upon it. When the Hymen is not purious, it is a disease, of her Nature ^{is} & Plantar suppose Diana is drawn with an Half Moon on her forehead as a token of her Virginity.

Section 5th

The Bladder is situated in the Female nearly as in the Male, but where the Prostata & gland lies in the Male, in the Female there is the Vagina; it is connected to the Vagina, the symphysis of the Os Sacrum, & surrounding parts by Cellular Membrane. — The Rectum makes the same kind of turns down the Os Sacrum to the Anus as in the Male, & is supported by the Levator Ani, & Os Coccygis at the Anus. — The Rectum is reflected over the Bladder, Uterus, & Rectum. — In passing from the Bladder to the Uterus it goes down between them & so to make a cavity between them, & it passes from the Uterus to the Rectum, it goes down still lower & makes a posterior & anterior cavity between them, from the bottom of these two cavities the Rectum rises up to cover the Uterus, which is loose, & varies its position a little in the different Altitudes of the body. — The Rectum in the Anterior cavity does not go so low down as the Os Sacrum & consequently covers no part of the Vagina; in the posterior cavity it goes below the Os Sacrum & covers a pretty considerable part of the upper end of the Vagina. — In a Diagram of the Abdomen the Water fills the posterior cavity as well as other parts, & by its gravity assisted by the gravity of the Intestines & their pressure on Respiration, it forces down the Rectum, there is then a bag of water between the Uterus & Rectum, which is gradually pressed on & sometimes directed its way quite down thro' the Cellular Membrane, between the Vagina & the Rectum, & points at the Perineum which is made so thin that a small puncture with a forcep would discharge the Water, & by the finger in the Rectum the bag of water is easily felt before it is every where behind the Bladder & before the Rectum the Vagina lies, & follows the curve of the Posterior end of Sacrum, from the Vestibulum it goes first backwards, then forwardly upwards, & the Vagina at the upper part as much of it as is not covered by the Rectum, lies in close contact with the Rectum, but below the Anus & Vestibulum there is a pretty considerable thickness of muscular flesh.

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Flesh; if the laceration in birth don't go thro this thick part they adjoin their
Tissues; if it does, they do not retain them; for in this thick part, the Sphincter Ani
muscle is situated. By the finger in the Vagina the Uterus is felt with
ease, & the state of the Rectum as to Disease of the bladder as to Urine, is
easily to be judged of by this means. The Disease call'd Procidentia
Uteri is frequently happening. The Uterus being pressed upon has a
Tendency to be protruded thro the Vagina. The first appearance of it is, the
femur of the Vagina bulges outwards on account of the obliquity of the
passage. The Uterus does not pass immediately down the Vagina,
but forwards on the fore part of it behind the Ureter, Utrinarius; as it advances
the pressure & shifts itself more backward, & when it comes to the Uterus
cum, the Uterus appears at the lower part of the Vagina; endeavouring to
push out at the Uterus, or at its first appearance the posterior part of the
Vagina may be pressed out near the Perineum. This is the common Progress
of a bearing down in the Spontaneous delivery come from the great Vessels
in the Loins, & go as far as the Uterus, as in the Male, but instead of going
out of the Genital, they stop in the Pelvis, & run in between the two folds
of the Extremity of the broad Ligament on each side, & are expanded partly
on the Ovarium, partly on the Fallopian Tubes, & partly along the broad
Ligament to the Fundus Uteri. Each of the great Ovarian arteries sends
down two branches. That which was largest in the Fetus, & went up
from the Pelvis to the Navel, degenerates into a ligament in the Adult, the
other branch goes down on the side of the Pelvis to the Bladder, Uterus,
& Vagina, call'd the Hypogastric Nerve. Duplicated in the Vagina
on the side of the Perineum are situated Cervix Glands, generally very
small, but in some Women are as large as a Kidney; their Ducts plant
upwards, & open just before the Cervix or Muciliform, or the Hymen in
Young Girls, & from them a Slimey fluid may be pressed out. By lifting up
The Vagina

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The Vagina, we see that it is smooth above, just within the Cervix, but for some time, as it approaches the Uterus, it becomes smooth; the Anterior & posterior parts are more rugous, than the two sides. The Orifice of the Uterus is a slit from side to side with the appearance of a long road, & projects a little way into the Vagina. In all common bearing, down the Uterus is not inverted, it is only the Vagina that suffers inversion, unless indeed just after Delivery. The Uterus itself is now & then inverted & falls thro' the Ovaries. The Substance of the Vagina itself is very thin, covered all within by a continuation of the Ligaments, Small Villous, & has likewise a Cuticle as the Esophagus has, which may be peeled off after the Vagina has been long steep'd in Water; its substance appears to be rather Pigment than Muscular. Its Musc. are also thin & weak; it is very thin & in hard Labour is frequently torn thro'. The Uterus was always till Instinctus descended, it appeared resembling a flattened fist, but in this they confounded it with the Ligaments of Peritonium; we divide it into the upper & larger part, the Fundus, & the lower & smaller part, the Cervix; the Vagina is fixed to the Cervix & is reflected round to the Fundus so as to make that ring which surrounds the Orifice. Till Pregnancy is pretty far advanced, there is no part of the Fossa contained in the Cervix, but all of it in the Fundus. The Substance of the Cervix is hard like a quill & without Villous in proportion to the Fundus which is much softer and according to vessels as the Uterus is nearly of the same thickness throughout. The internal Cavity is of the same shape as the external Surface, that is to say, nearly triangular with one posterior & two lateral angles. The inner Surface of the Cervix is full of Musc. with a longitudinal Ridge in the middle of the fore part. The Musc. is cut off from the Ridge on each side upwards & downwards, like the pin of a feather. There is but little difference in the size of Uterus in some women, especially in old ones, the Cavity of the Cervix is obliterated, so that

so that there is no passage from the Uterus to the Vagina. The Orifice in general is large enough to admit the end of the finger half the length of the nail, & so that the two surfaces may be distinguished; on the upper part the Cavity is conglobated on each side, & is as if it were subdivided into two horns. in this it comes nearest to the Descriptions given of it by Anatomists, who copied commonly from Lardupedo. In the angle of each horn, is an Orifice through which a Nipple may be easily passed by the finger. The Fallopian Tube opens into the Uterus. When the Uterus is impregnated a quantity of gelatinous fluid is thrown out from the sides of the Cervix, & connects them together, so that all communication between the Uterus & Vagina is cut off. The Vessels of the Uterus are very numerous. The Spermatic & Hypogastric Vessels Anastomose few & wide. The Peritoneum, & then comes the Substance as the Prevertebral Vessels do before they go upon the Posterior. The Substance of the Uterus has fibres which have a Contractile power, but their action is slow. This we conclude to be true, from the Uterus contracting upon the hand when introduced to take away the Place. Nay, for I find it shall go in readily but after a little while it can only be introduced with difficulty. The Appendages to the Uterus are first the Ligaments, the Ovarian Ligaments have been supposed to be muscles that in Contraction draw down the Uterus so as to adapt it to receive it to receive the Semen, & their Situation would seem to favour this Opinion, but they appear to consist of nothing but Vessels, & these are not at all made out. The others are the Ovaria & the Fallopian Tubes. — The Ovarium was called by the Ancients, the Female Testicle till the time of Dr. Graaf, Truch & Steno, it was supposed to secrete Semen to mix with the Male Semen. They are much of the size & substance of the Male Testicles. In young Women it is smooth, in old ones it takes an irregular

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unequal chopp'd Surface, one end is connected to the Uterus by the broad Ligament, the other is connected to the Orifice of the Fallopian Tube at the Mucous Diabolus, The Spermatic Vessels enter it on that side which is connected to the broad Ligament, & shoot thro' it; that side which is near the broad Ligament has many Considerable Vessels, but that part of the Substance which is at some distance from it, is not much Vascular, & in Women that have not conceived there are several little Hydatida scattered up & down the Substance, The Corpus Siccum is not found in an Ovarium of a Woman that has conceived.

The Fallopian Tube is connected to the Fundus Uteri, it increases in bulk & becomes convoluted like an Intestine as it goes on to terminato at the Mucous Diabolus, The Orifice is in the Middle of the Mucous Diabolus like the hole in the Middle of a Pink Flaxet; their inner Surface is rugous, The Bottom of the Bladder rests upon the Vagina, and sometimes in Delivery it happens that the Vagina and Bladder are lacerated, and a communication is opened between them, which always continues to be a depending drain for the Urine, If there is a rough Stone in the Bladder at birth the Bladder being pressed between the Child's head, and the Stone may be so much bruised as to bring on Inflammation, and Suppuration, of the Patient who for 6, or 8 Days was thought recovering, shall have her Urine gush out of a sudden from the separation of the parts in consequence of the pulling done her in Labour, and afterwards can never retain her Urine, If a Stone is sticking in the Utricle it will easily be felt by the finger in the Vagina, As the Urine only flows thro' the Utricle, now, then it may

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it may be cut, and will heal again; but if the Bladder is wounded from the Vagina, the Wound never heals, because the Utrine is continually running thro' it. All that posterior part of the Bladder that lies between the Uterus and Utritia lies upon the Vagina. The Utritia is very short, little more than an Inch, or an Inch and an half in length, it is straight and distractile, so that a Stone will often pass thro' it of considerable bulk. It is every where upon the Vagina.

At the time of Puberty, the Uterus and Breasts of Women increase vastly more in proportion than all the other parts of the body, and at the time of Stereogestation still more.

The Lymphatics

Lecture 51st

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The Absorbing System was not known, about 140 years ago, neither was the Circulation of the Blood. We have already considered it in a general view, & shall now take a view of some of the particular Lymphatics. It was thought that the Inventrous Vessels absorbed the Chyle from the Intestines; & the Disappearance of the Water of a Drapery was accounted for by saying that the Veins absorbed it. Risiostatus seems to have been the first that noticed the manner in which the Chyle is conveyed from the Intestines, for he was the Practitioner upon the Inventory of Hild. Gustachius discovered the Thoracic Duct in a Horse, and Asellius clearly made out the System. Hulbæk seems to be the first Discoverer of the Lymphatics. The Reasons why they were not discovered sooner, were probably, there, first, too great respect for received Opinions; secondly they had no Injection; Thirdly, the Vessels in many parts are exceedingly small; fourthly accidental discouragements; lastly dead bodies could be but seldom obtained for Dissection, and the Use of these Sanguiferous Vessels did not appear to be considerable. The manner of finding a Lymphatic vessel is in the first place by puncturing a Lymphatic Gland or Blowing into it, which will inflate the Vessel; secondly, by Perfusion, as Malpighi did. They used to find them, but they did not know that it was Air entering them from the Puncturing Cellular Membrane, that rendered them visible. Anatomists have said that they are to be found by blowing into the Arteries, & then inflating them, but in this case the Air don't pass immediately from the Arteries into the Lymphatics, but first enters the Arteries, & gets into the Cellular Membrane & from thence into the Lymphatics by Extravasation. They have said that by blowing into the Secretory Ducts, as into the Uterus, the Lymphatics will be inflated, but this likewise happens from previous Extravasation.

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extravasation or Blowings into the Cavities whence they arieth into the Intestines, will distract them, & render them conspicuous, & they generally will be found to run along with the Intestines themselves. When a Vein is found, if it is a Lymphatic it may be known from an Artery, on a Skin by the great number of Valves, & from the great thinness of its Coat, & from running upon Surfaces where no sensible Artery, or Vein does, as upon the external Surface of the Liver; besides, these Veins do not ramify as the other Veins do, but make direct work with each other, & till they come to a common Trunk they have no Valves. Much hence, that they had any Valves, & all those little bodies within them pieces of fat only, for he observed that they ought to be injected both ways; but it is very plain that they have Valves, by the which they don't catch in the dead Body, it most probable that they have something depending on Setae which makes them catch in the living Body. Another peculiarity is, that the Lymphatics are often long voluntary Tubes running the whole length of the Legs, & without branching, & they often grow thicker. The Substance of the Lymphatic is probably muscular, tho' we cannot demonstrate any thing muscular in them. Some have said that the Valves are little Muscles to propell the Lymph forwards, others, that they are to strengthen the Sides of the Tube, which opinion Professor Monro says is ridiculous, because a Plasterer on the best side would have answered the purpose better than this on the lower. Their use is undoubtably to prevent the retrograde Motion of the Lymph. Puerhors supposed that every Lymphatic had its origin in a Gland, & much supposed them to arise from Follicles. Bavianus & Bartholinus were the first who imagined them to arise from the Intestines of man. Dr. Hunter has demonstrated that they arise from every surface of the body both internal & external, they generally run between an Artery & Vein towards the heart, except those of the Head; an other peculiarity is, that they are always running thro' Glands, they all seem to terminate

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terminate finally in the Thoracic Duct, in the Receptaculum Chyle, & then in the Veins in any Animal, tho' M' Neeson has found, that in his he, many of them terminate immediately in the Veins besides what go to the Thoracic Duct, but in the human body they mostly terminate in the Receptaculum Chyle, Dr Hunter thinks there is nothing particular in this part of the Duct deserving this name, & sometimes there is a little dilatation of the lower End of the Duct which is called so. In France a Gentleman has lately taken up an Opinion, that the Receptaculum Chyle is not one Trunk, but consists of several branches, for this Opinion however there is not the least foundation. The Thoracic Duct begins at the few & to lower Vertebrae Lomborum, it runs up the sides of the Spine, passes under the right Lungs Diaphragmatis, goes up to the Chest between the 2nd & 3rd Vena Azygos, passes under the right Subclavian & Jugular Veins, & then turns downwards, & terminates by a single Orifice in the left Subclavian Vein. Its Office is to throw the Lymph of Chyle into the Mass of the Blood. Bourne supposed that the Chyle consisted of Oil, Innuage, & water, because of these he could make a white Compound somewhat similar to Chyle. The Lymph is commonly transparent & pale. The Chyle is commonly white, & when exposed to Air, puts on the same Appearance, as the Blood does, that is, it separates into a coagulum & Serum. Dr Hunter thinks the Stomach is much concerned in making the Blood. Dr Lindley is of opinion, that the first joint of a Lymphatic, or Bursal fillet itself, by the contract, of forces the fluid into the second joint, & that afterwards the motion of the Arteries continually propell it forward, & it seems probable that the Chyle is propell by the contraction of the Intestines & propell it forward. From the great spreading of the Arteries it appears that these Lymphatics can absorb & take away the parts of which the body is composed faster than the Arteries can build them up. The Lymphatics lands when diseas'd, & hardened, as they very commonly are in the Inventory of a scrophulous habitation, so as to be felt externally.

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externally thro' the Skin of the Abdomen, are full of a cheevy Matter, the coagulable part of the Lymph coagulated; of this Cheevy Matter not only, plugs up the Pores of the Gland, but plugs up the Lymphatic Vessels also, quite from the Intestines to the Gland. We now come to the particular Lymphatics or Thro's which come from the Intestines are called Lacteals; it is probable that they arise upon the Villi, making a reticulation; when once the Valves are forced, by the Mercury gets on to the Postelches, there is such an Anatomosis, that it will return, & fill all those in the Mesentery, & between the Musculæ & Visceræ. They are numerous, & interwoven, & the Mercury appears to live in little Cells there. The Thro's are divided into three or four classes, in those which come from the Intestines, before they enter a Gland are called Lacteals primi generis, & from the Spine to the Pinguiculum they are tertii generis. No Anatomist has yet demonstrated the Lymphatics of the Heart; but at the small Conveniæ there are small Lymphatic Glands, from whence we conclude that there are Lymphatic Vessels. The Liver has Lymphatics which sometimes perforate the Diaphragm, & descend from the Surface of the Liver to its Substance. We cannot demonstrate the Lymphatics of the Human Spleen, but we can in the Calf's Spleen. Mr Newson founds his Theory of the Lymphatic in being the only Excretory Ducts of the Spleen, which he supposes has a principal Share in the Formation of Blood, upon an Experiment that he made by tying the Lymphatics about the Spleen of a Calf, & finding that they contained red Globules. But this does not prove that they are the Excretory Ducts of the Spleen, more than that they are the Excretory Ducts of the Spleen; for in the Lymphatics of the Spleen of a Lion, there was found coagulated Blood, which hindered the Passage of the Mercury. The Lymphatics of the Kidneys have never been seen, & in the Human Heart they yet remain undiscovered. In a Bull's Heart Mr Crichton has discovered them, but where they terminated was not clear. The Lymphatics of the Heart may be demonstrated very distinctly, many

Anatomists

The Sypnophatics

anatomists have said that they have seen them on the Brain: D'Hunter has never seen them, & D'Amont thinks there are none in the internal parts of the Head, the Absorption of the Cartharides shows that they are upon the external parts of the head, if it is truly, then are some on the Brain. In the Turtle & Fish there are no Sypnophatic glands. The Sypnophatics are never filled from the arteries, but by exsudating them, & as they don't begin from the arteries, there was a necessity for their having valves to hinder the retrograde motion of the fluids. In the Extremities, as there are decapitated superficial veins, so there are also decapitated superficial Sypnophatics; from a cut of the finger the Sypnophatic gland just above the Elbow will swell & inflame. A Variety of different Theories have been invented to account for their use. Some have supposed that they suck up extravasated serum which might have been thrown out, when the arteries act too strongly; others thought that they took up the chyle from the blood to undergo a circulation of its own, others that their sole use was for the Absorption of fat. D'Hunter asserts that the red veins do not absorb, that the Sypnophatics are never injected from the arteries, & that the Sypnophatics are the only vessels that do absorb in the body. He observes that the Venereal Pox or always takes the course of the glands: if the infection is received at the Penis, the Sypnophatic glands in the groin are affected, if by the finger, those of the arm Pit, if by the mouth those in the Throat, if by the nipple, then those in the Breast are diseased. D'Hunter supposes that the Testes is nourished by Absorption, for there is no immediate connection between the Vessels of the Testes, & those of the Fatus, & it is a fact that the Sypnophatic Thoracic Duct is much larger in proportion in a Fatus, than they are in a Child that has been born, or in an Adult. The semen after it is separated by the Testicle is absorbed by the Sypnophatics, & carried again into the Mass of Blood, & is supposed to strengthen the system.

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The System, for it is Observed that Men who are much addicted to Venery are very weak, & that those who never use Venery preserve their Strength to a great Age. Dr Hunter supposes that the Lymphatics antagonise the arterial System, that as the arteries are continually building up the Body by adding new Matter, so the Lymphatics are continually taking up & carrying out of the Constitution whatever is become noxious of Useless. Fever dont seem to affect the Lymphatic System so much as the Arterial. The Plague is supposed to be got by Absorption alone from Contact, hence an Ulcerated surface is best for Absorption: a Chancr is almost always followed by a Bubo. It seems that in People bit by a Mad Dog the Poison is not always immediately Absorbd into the Habit, & Dr John Hunter supposes for want of sufficient Stimulus to excite Absorption, therefore advises the part to be cut off, or eat away with Caustics as soon as possible.

The Kidney, & Glandula Renalis

Section 52

The Kidney lies under the Pintoneum, & is fix'd down to the neighbouring parts by a large quantity of cellular membrane, which generally contains a large quantity of fat. In the different Attitudes of the body it moves a little upwards & downwards, it lies against the side of the spine before the Quadratus & Psoas Muscles, & upon a little of the lower edge of the Diaphragm, & sometimes in an erect posture the lower end comes as low down as the posterior part of the spine of the Ilium, at least it lies before the inside of the last rib; its Vessels are the Emissary Artery & Vein that come from the Aorta & Vena Cava; & every now & then, there are small branches coming from the Aorta & Vena Cava, which do not enter the Kidney at the great notch along with the Emissaries, but go in at other parts. The Emissary Artery enters the Kidney behind the Vein. They were call'd Emissaries because the Physicians supposed that the Urine was diffus'd & given from the blood in the Kidneys: its Secretory Duct is within the Kidney, & as far down as it is larger than the rest, is call'd the Pelves; the remainder is call'd the Utricle, it runs down to the fleshy rim of the Pelves made by the Psoas Muscles & then down the side of the Pelves toward the Bladder. Between the upper end of the Kidney, & the spine upon the free Diaphragm is lies the Glandula Renalis, call'd also the Renal Cystelet, it takes Vessels from the Emissary of Pheonix, & lies in a considerable quantity of fat; if there is a stone in the Kidney, Urephreotomy has been recommended, & said to have been done successfully; but this Operation cannot be performed safely for we have no means by which we can be certain of their being a stone in the Kidney, as we have in the Bladder; so that we should run the risk of not meeting with a stone after we had cut: if we cut upon an Alveolus of the Kidney, & thus dislodge a stone it cannot be call'd Urephreotomy.

The Kidney &c

nephrotomy least surely opening on the Utricle, & in cutting towards the Pelvis we cannot avoid wounding part of the Kidney, for great part of the Pelvis lies in it, we should therefore have the risk of wounding the principal Vessels, and occasion such an Hemorrhage as must prove fatal. The Utricle & Vessels go to every part of the Kidney; the Utricle enlarges at the Kidney where it is called Pelvis, & divides into a number of short large Tubes in the Substance of the Kidney called the Papillæ tubulari; Beside the Cellular Membrane, and Peritoneum, it has a proper Capsula which easily separates from the body of the Kidney, except where it is blended with the coats of Vessels that enter at the notch, & leaves the Surface smooth; the capsule is double, there is an outside flesh call'd the Cortical part, & an inside flesh call'd the Tubular part; the human Kidney is compounded of many little kidneys, like as in the Liver, Cat, & other Animals of that Species consisting of a number of Lobuli, which is particularly evident in a Bear's kidney, other Animals have a simple kidney not subdivided into Lobuli. In an infant kidney, not very minutely injected the Cortical part is all filled, & no Vessel to be seen in the Tubular part: The Vessels all go to the cortical part first: In every compounded kidney there is an Infundibulum corresponding to each Lobulus, the Tubular part of each makes a body like a nipple, which is received into the Infundibulum, & has many Subuli opening on it; the Infundibulum is filled all round the nipple; this disposition of the Kidney into distinct portions is more apparent in a Fetus than in an Adult. The Subuli arise from the inside of the Cortical Substance to make those which are call'd the Mamillary portions, the number of the Mamillary portions of the corresponding Infundibula varies in the human kidney, from six to fourteen generally. In a simple Kidney there is properly but one Mamillary portion. The Cortical Substance is very vascular.

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vascular, Malpighi says that by injecting Ink into the Artery, & cutting open the Kidney he saw little bags in the cortical substance fill'd with S. the little bags were called Cryptae of the Kidney. Ruyssch saw these appearances & so did the other Proectors, but he would not allow that they were bags: He said that they were only small masses of minute curvilinear vessels; one objection to the existencie of the Cryptae was, that this appearance was only the effect of transversal section of the Arteries; but this is no objection: Others said that it happened in consequence of the projection being extravasated? Until Paul Winter D^r Hunter believed that there were Cryptae; But Mr Crichton shew'd him plainly that these bag-like appearances were nothing else, but curvilinear Arteries, &c so that Ruyssch is certainly right after all. in the cortical part from Mr Crichton's injection appears to be all entirely vascular. Albinus said that the Tubuli were concretions of the Arteries & Veins, & that they might be injected from the Arteries & Veins, but D^r Hunter was of opinion that what Albinus took for Tubuli was nothing more than the Blood Vessels, for the nourishment of the tubular part, & supposed that the Tubuli had never been injected by any anatomist. Mr John Hunter injected the Tubuli of an Ovis's Kidney from the Uterus, but Mr Crichton has injected them from the Arteries & Veins with ease, & convinced D^r Hunter, that they are concretions of Blood Vessels; by the artery of Uterus too the Pelvis of the Kidney was fill'd, & the injection was in the very mouths of the Tubuli, that opened upon the Nipples. There is often great variety in the Convoluted Artery of Uterus as to number of vessels there is more than one Pelvis of more than one Uterus. The right Kidney generally lies a little lower than the left, because of its being press'd down by the Liver on the right side: sometimes one kidney has been wanting, and sometimes both have been united at one end, and make what is called the Horse-shoe Kidney. The Renal

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The Renal Gland or Renal Capsula has been call'd Capsula Atrobilia & has been call'd both Gland, and Capsula: it is most probable it is a glandular body; it is exceeding vascular, and is largest, and most perfect in the Foetus: it is lost in some measure in the Adult, tho' not so much as the Thymus: the Outer Substance of it is firm, and of a yellowish White & the inside which is soft, and made of a brownish flesh may be buried down to a thick Fluid, which was supposed to be the Atrobilia & its use is entirely unknown: neither is it known whether it is Glandular, or not: there is a pretty large Vein runs in the center, which at first might be taken for the renal: very Distr. It has no Evident Duct that we know of.

The opinion that the Kidney has one Artery bringing Blood to it for the urine to be secreted from, & another Artery bringing Blood for its nourishment is false, they say that in the one the blood is filled for Secretion, in the other it is filled for nourishment by way that they both conflux the Arteria; but when the Blood in the two meet be the same: there dont appear to be any thing of the Kidney, nor in any other part of the body, the lungs excepted.

It is observed that a fluid drank soon gets into the Bladder: from this some have imagined that there is a passage leading immediately from the Stomach into the Bladder, and lately Dr Morgan was of this Opinion: but there dont appear to be any ground for this Suggestion: It is pretty clear that no Urine gets into the bladder, but what is secreted by the Kidneys. The Urine is made of the Viscid Part Water, & a non-volatile part of the body. The excrementitious part consists of an attenuated Oil, Salts, & an Earthy Matter: It is absolutely necessary that the excrementitious part should be discharged from the body, for a person cant live above ten Days

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Days with a total Suppression of Urine, tho' the Watery part that is retained be no great Deal, 'till it was supposed that there was something poisonous in it to the Constitution. The Sweat that breakout in Suppressions of Urine are not, as have been generally imagined, of an Unpleasant Smell, which Any one may be convinc'd of that attend to this circumstance, extraneous Matter may become the Nucleus of a Stone in the bladder by being pushed into it, but in the Kidney this cannot be the Case: it must then be owing entirely to the disposition the Urine has in it self to form Crystall's. Dr Hunter has found little Stones in the Subili, Bellidians in the Substone & pretty considerable ones in the Pelvis of the Kidney, in short in every part of it. A Stone sticking in the Utric. causes very great pain & prevents the Urine getting into the Bladder, and the Pelvis & that part of the Utric which is above the Stone will be greatly distended by the large quantity of Urine retained. If the Patient is not destroy'd by the distension, the pressure of the fluid above the Stone will force it downward into the Bladder, & the Symptoms will cease. This seldom fails to be the Case. Sometimes the substance of the Kidney is all wasted away, & nothing remains but an Enlarg'd Pelvis. This was the Case of a young lady whose Abdomen externally was increas'd prodigiously, by one of these Enlarg'd kidneys. A Son, or Ulcerated kidney is a very rare Case, tho' it is supposed to happen often: Dr Hunter never saw but one Case of this kind. Inflammation of the Kidney is very common, & lastt often for a long time, & if very acute goes on to Suppuration: it causes pain, the Urine is & bloody Water, & when blood has lain in the Urine vomition, it appears when voided of the Colour of Coffee Grounds; oftentimes the Water is urine when the Kidney

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Kidneys are affected, yed sometimes when the Pelvis is plug'd up no water can get into the Bladder. D^r Hontes had a complaint in his right kidney attended with bloody Urine, pain sometimes sever, sometimes dull; it was supposed by his Radical friends to be occasion'd by Calculi; but he could not think so, for when the pain was dull, if he rode out in his Chariot, the pain was increased in the jolting over the Pavement, it turn'd to be the Rheumatism, for he was seized with it in his Shoulder, and from that time his肾脏的 complaints ceased wholly. This Rheumatism was attended with bursting of Veins, for when it attack'd his head, Blood was extravasated in the Tarsica Consonativa and about the Eyes. The Nerves carry on such Sympathies between the different parts as to Occasion many Mistakes in judging of the seat of diseases. A stone at the neck of the Bladder gives pain at the End of the Penis, while a stone in the Kidney shall feel as it were in the neck of the Bladder; such is the Sympathy of Parts by means of the Nerves.

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Physiology of the Abdominal Viscera

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Lecture 53

The Anatomy of the Abdominal, or Chyle-victive Viscera has already been given; & now it remains to speak of them Physiologically, to follow the order we kept to in the Anatomy, we shall first of all take the Intestinal Tube, & then its Appendages.

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The food is changed, & separated into two parts, the Chyle, or Nutritious part, & the Feces or Excrementitious part. The food is propelled thro' the Canal by muscular force, & fluids are carried into the Stomach not by their gravity, but by the muscular force of the Asophagus, which is plainly observed in a Horse drinking at a Pond, for the Water passes thro' part of the Asophagus against its own gravity, & a Man placed upon his head can swallow. The muscular coat of the Asophagus can contract so as to squeeze a large body into the Stomach, & so as to squeeze a small body into it even a small globule of quicksilver, so that nothing can pass thro' the body but by muscular action. A man in St. George's Hospital, from a blow on his spinal marrow, had his abdominal viscera become paralytic, so that when he swallowed (for the Asophagus was unaffected) not having the muscular action to propell it forward, remained in his Stomach, which was found full of what had been given, when his Body was opened after Death.

The inner membrane of the Alimentary Tube is much longer than the other coats because the Ridges of the surface is still more increased for absorption by the Villi, or little processes of the inner membrane. The manner in which the operation of Digestion is performed has not yet been settled, as old as the most ancient Physiologists, & as new as the most modern ones, is the opinion of its being only a mechanical change by secretion, & they strengthened their arguments

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arguments by observing that Birds took Pebbles into their Gizzard to a ^{large} as a mill upon the grain they swallowed! Others have accounted for it physicoally, that the Change was produced by heat & moisture, as it were by boiling. It was believed that the Vena Cava was the fountain of heat, & that for the purpose of warmth, the Stomach was placed over the great Veins & surrounded by the Heart, Spleen & Liver, which was supposed to make the blood; Others have supposed that the food was dissolved & chang'd into Chyle by means of a Monasterium, Others that this Change was produced by a fermentation peculiar to the Stomach; lastly many, particularly Boerhaave, took in all these powers to explain Digestion even so far as to say the shake given by the Arteries contributed this Motion to Attraction. All these Theories are liable to Objections; it cannot be heat that produces this Change, as those Animals that are cold digest as well as those that are hot, & it can hardly be from Attraction, for Carnivorous Birds have no Gizzard, they have only a thin muscular Coat for their Stomach; No one can pretend to say what happens in the body, from what he sees going forwards out of it. Mr John Hunter has made a number of Experiments & Observations on live Animals as the best Method, & indeed the only one he could take to as a Trial by what power it is that the Operation of Digestion is performed in the Stomach. He Observes that All Animals have either their food prepared for their digestion, or prepare it themselves. That Birds are provided with a strong muscular Gizzard, & taken Pebbles too, not to digest their food but only to act as a Mill to take off the Shell of the Grain they Swallow, so that the body of the grain may be ligested, which it could not be if the Shell or Hawk was left in it. & it would pass thro' them unctang'd. In Horse that has lost his teeth not being able to break the Flews of his Caw that he eats, will not be nourish'd by it, but it will pass thro' him unctang'd, & he says that the Grain is not ligested in the Gizzard, but goes out of it to be digested by the other part of the Canal; he concludes that Digestion is a process sui generis, & carried on as

on as well in cold as in warm Animals, that large & small pieces are equally digested;
in Animals that fed on Milk, he finds that the Stomach in which the Milk is coagulated
by the Gastric juice is the Digestor; he finds that the power of the Stomach over-
comes fermentation in general; for after a piece of meat that was putrid had
remained in the Stomach of a Dog a little time, he opened the Dog, & found it
perfectly sound; he finds that the power of Stomach is strong in an healthy and
hungry Animal; & that it is weak in Unhealthy Animals, & that is not hungry, so
that Digestion goes on in proportion as the Constitution stands in need of it; he
finds there is no distinction of it in this process, that the digestive Organs have no
power over a living Animal, & can digest an Animal only after it is dead; the
principle of life protects it from the action of the Stomach; he finds that a Dog
digests not only the flesh about the bone, but also the coats of the Vessels in the bone
Extracts the marrow, so that the bone is discharged with the same light & spongey;
the digestive power prevades the innermost part of the bone; he finds that the matter
formed by Digestion from all kinds of food is the same, that a piece of Sheep's
turn'd into the same Cream: like fluid as were a piece of soft flesh in the Stomach
of a Dog; he finds that Carnivorous Birds & that feed not the preparation of flesh
which Granivorous Birds do of the Grain, have no Digestion, & do not swallow Pebbles
Young Birds then happens that in opening dead Birds, we find the Stomach is in
some places dissolved into a gelatinous matter, so that the contents are found to
have got out of the Stomach into the cavity of the Abdomen. Dr Hunter supposes
this change or Dissolution does not take place till after Death, that as the process
of Digestion might be going on at the time of Death, in those cases the Stomach
turns its power on itself, & thus occasions its own dissolution. As a proof of this
Mr John Hunter knew a man that was killed suddenly by a blow on his head soon
after he had eaten his Supper of Bread, Cheese & Butter; upon opening his body his
Stomach was found to be dissolved, and the Bread, Cheese and Butter were
burst out into the Abdomen.

the Appendages to the Digestive Organs are the Liver, Pancreas & Spleen; These are vented into the Colon, as they serve as Pigtments to this which the great Vessels are, that carry Blood to & from the Intestines, may be considered as Appendages likewise. The Use of the Spleen is not made out probably on account however of its situation to prevent Adhesions of the Intestines to the Parietes of the Abdomen. The old Physiologists supposed that the Liver made the Blood that the Heart shou'd be relieved from the posturines by the Liver. Vines, & by them carried to the Liver to be turned into Blood; that the bile was an excrement, & a part of the Excrement excreted by the Liver as unfit for being made into Blood; & that the new formed Blood was carried by the Vena Cava Hepatica from the Liver into the Vena Cava by it distributed immediately to all parts of the body. This Opinion continued till a few Years ago when the Bileal was discovered, & since then the Bile has been considered as serving some important office in the process of Digestion. It has been said that the Bile coming from the Liver by the Ductus Hepaticus, & that coming from the Gall-Bladder by the Cystic Duct, are of 2 kinds, & that the Gall-Bladder receives bile as well as the Liver, & that the Cystic Bile was thicker & thicker than that of the Liver, but this is a mistake, for they are both the same kind of Bile, & both excreted by the Liver. That the Gall-Bladder does not receive Bile is evident, for if the Cystic Duct is tyed the bladder dont fill. It has been supposed, that the Liver conveys little Ducts to the Gall-Bladder to convey the bile into it, called the Hepato-cystic ducts; Others have supposed that the bile was sent by the Liver down to the Hepatic Duct, & that it regurgitated from thence into the Gall-Bladder by getting up the Cystic, where the two meet, & from the Ductus communis Choloductus. In some Birds it gets into the Gall-bladder by means of Hepato-cystic Ducts, but in the Human body always by Regurgitation; this however has been disputed. Dr. Senac, late Physician to the French King, in his fourth Edition of His *Elementa Surgery*, says, that the Gall-bladder of a Serpent has no communication with the Duct of the

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that the Duct from the Liver & that from the Gall-Bladder run a quicke way together, but but do not communicate. ^{as I} ^{the} Spleen is opened at the Liver, & a Viper (for the French word Spleen signifies all Animal of that kind,) I found that the Liver & the Hepatic Ducts did run a long way without communicating, but that just as they are about to open into the Gall-Bladder, they do communicate with each other. The Use of the Pancreas is not known, it excretes a fluid, probably very necessary to the Operation of Digestion. A Lady after having been for a long time afflicted with continual flinging, gripping & vomiting, upon opening her the Pancreas was found larger & curiouſe, so that he concluded the Pancreas poured an acrid juice into the Gall-bladder, & kept up a constant irritation by it. Stimulus & the Spleen is the Oppiduum Medicinum, for its use is certainly not at all known. The best Opinion formed of it is that it has a principal part in the formation of the Blood. But the greatest Objection to this is that Animals have lived as well without as with it. A man at the Battle of Dettingen was wounded by a Sabre on the left side of the Abdomen, the Spleen was protruded & mortified, so that it was judged necessary to cut it off, & it was cut off except a very small piece of it. Indeed, he recovered health as well as he did well, & continues well with this very difference in his Constitution to this day. The Truth of this fact, Mr Willmott a Prothecary in Horncastle, that Covent-Garden, can affirm, for he was a Surgeon to the Troop to which the man belonged, & did himself cut off the Spleen.

Lecture 54.

First of those affecting the Tube in general, & then of those affecting particular parts. It appears from opening many Dead bodies, that the greatest & most muscular part of the Tube is irrecoverable tube affected, & then purpurae, for instance a bit of bone passing thru is more liable to scratch a part that is narrowing than contracts on it strongly. The beginning of the Asophagus then is often found diseased the Pylorus, the Cardia, the lower end of the Colon & lastly the Anus, which is various independent of the Sphincter Ani, which seems to be the reason why we are plagued here with the Piles, Abscesses, & Fistulae. These narrow parts of the Canal being exposed to internal Stimuli an Ulcer frequently found to be the seat of Ulceration. All Wounds of this Tube are either paroxysms, or more dangerous, as they are near to the upper part, for if the Stomach or beginning of the Intestines is wounded from without, the Chyle will escape & the Ulcer of the Patient will not be diminished, if the Wound be lower on the lower end of the Intestines, then a great part of the Chyle will be absorbed before it can point to the Wound. On these Cases the Patient should take only as much nourishment as is necessary to keep him Alive, & that should be of the lightest & most digestible Fluids & not in large wands. That at high age, we should rather endeavour to diminish him by the Anus. Glisters made of Barth with the yolk of an Egg & a little wine should be injected often in a Day in small quantities, & will afford great nourishment, having first emptied the Intestines with a large dose of Glycerin. The Motion of the Alimentary Tube is often inverted by the involution, & begins in any Part of the Tube, this may happen from various causes, & in the Living body different irritations irritate & invert different parts of the Tube. Sometimes irritate the Musc. of the Stomach, & any Stimulus applied to the primary Vise will irritate till thrown off. Not only Stimuli on the internal

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internal Surface of the Pharynx will produce Vomiting, but also Stimulus on the Nerves of other parts: the Eye for instance will occasion Vomiting from Sympathy, the Person from seeing a disagreeable Object becomes sick & Vomits; It arises also from Mechanical Obstruction as in a Strangulated Hernia, the Peristaltic Motion is sometimes suspended, in the first place by force, as in hurt done to the spinal Nerves by a blow, or distortion of the Spine. The Nerve being affected the Muscular Action is lost in those parts to which the affected nerve belongs, it is suspended by an opiate, for an opiate does not stop a purging from any Astringent quality, but only by suspending the Influence of the Nerves by that means the Muscular Motion of the Canal is in a continual Purging, Spasms can only restrain for a time. The peristaltic Motion sometimes becomes brisk, at others exceeding languid, this is another cause that suspends the Peristaltic Motion, which we dont understand it is called a Paroxysm, this often happens to healthy People, so that they shall remain many Days without a Stool, but when the Stool goes off the Muscular Coat assumes its power, & then soon follows a very copious Evacuation indeed. Most Obstructions in the Intestines have been thought to arise from Paroxysms. In every Obstruction the Danger is vastly greater when it is attended with Vomiting. When there is no Vomiting it is hardly ever prove fatal. Those cases which are truly Spasmodic are not attended with Vomiting. When the Invasion of the peristaltic Motion is attended with violent pain & continual Vomiting, so that every thing passes upward, the Patient is said to have the Stomach Paroxysm, or Intussusception. It has been said that the Stomach Paroxysm is often caused by Paroxysms but in all the bodies of Patients has opened that died of this complaint, he always found some Mechanical Obstruction. The Stomach Paroxysm is a common attendant in Strangulated Hernias from the Gut being obstructed, so that nothing passes thro' it besides this (which may be considered as an external Obstruction) there may be internal obstruction, as when one part of

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part of the intestine receives the other immediately before it into its cavity, & makes a stricture upon it: this is called an Intussusception or Volvulus, & is a very common cause of the Great Passion. The Intestine cannot entangle as in a knot, because of the tenacity which holds every Intersusception in its progress; Dr. Hunter related the case of a child that on a sudden by a violent & violent motion into convulsions, & in about 24 hours died: upon opening the body the end of the Jejunum was found to have passed itself into the Colon, & had pushed up & inverted the Cecum & Colon, & lay under the Liver & was so highly inflamed & full of blood that there was no disentangling it, but that the passage was perfectly obstructed, then was no vomiting from the first appearance of symptoms till death: an ulcer in the alimentary canal is a common cause of the convulsion, or Great Passion, it stimulates the muscular fibres so that the intestine always keeps small, & by becoming callous from the inflammation, the intestine is compressed, & the intestine has no way of freeing itself of its contents, but by setting up an inverted peristaltic motion. Another cause of Great Passion is a thickening, hardening, & tightness of the body of the intestine, analogous to Cirrhosis: It arises also from Intestinal Calculi plugging up the passage. It is a question whether there can be a total inversion of the peristaltic motion from the liver up to the mouth. This has not been decided. But then can the contents of the great Intestines get up to the small by passing the Vasa recti. Some say that it does not act as a valve in the living body. It is said that at Edinburgh, the matter of a Glycer was vomited up, & this is said to have happened often. But Dr. White told Dr. Hunter that there was cause to believe, that there was a union together of the Colon, & upper part of the small Intestines, & away by this means from one to the other in consequence of a suppuration, for the Glycer came up immediately, & did not remain a sufficient time in the body to be forced backwards along the convolutions of all the Intestines. We come now to consider the diseases of particular parts. First
obstructed

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Obstructed Deglutition. Difficulty of swallowing is a very common disease, & often arises from a very Melancholy cause, from the Dilatation of the Coats of the Esophagus forming a Pouch, sometimes it comes on very rapidly, & continues very gradually & insensibly. At first some difficulty is met with in swallowing solids, afterwards a difficulty of swallowing fluids. The Patients in this Case become exceeding weak for a considerable time before they enquire for the difficulty of swallowing increase so much that they are literally starv'd for want of being able to take down any nourishment. Physical People often mistake their Complaint for Spasms, but Dr Hunter never knew obstructed Deglutition arising to that case. Swallowing any hard body which makes a lodgment in the Esophagus, hinders that Constriction which makes it sometimes dilate into a Pouch, in Swallowing which is performed with great difficulty & labour, the food is received into this Pouch, but is soon thrown up again, the Patient grows very weak in consequence of not being nourished & Dies, which was the Case of a Gentleman at Ludlow from swallowing a Cluny stone which lodged in his Esophagus, & came up sometime after. The Case was communicated to Dr Hunter by the Surgeon who attended him, who also made the Dr a present of the Esophagus which he shew'd. The Case is published in the Med. Obs. &c when difficulty of swallowing comes on, I cannot be said from what cause it arises. It may be from an Ulcer, from a Stricture or from a Dilatation of the Esophagus, or from something else. It is better then, not to force down Bougies, Sordangs, or other Instruments, for the Esophagus cannot bear it. A Gentleman had a difficulty of swallowing supposed to be owing to Stricture, & he was thought to have preserved his life by means of a Golden Ball with a string fastened to it, which he frequently swallowed & drew up again, & by this means prou'd to the stricture from enervating so much as to hinder Deglutition entirely; notwithstanding this it is never adviseable to push into the Esophagus, only with a

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with a view of getting something out, that has been recently stuck there. In then we can do nothing, I advise smoothly fluid instruments to be swallowed gradually, to give the Ulcer a chance of healing, if there are any. As a surgical cause by Nutrition is there a case related by Dr. Morbly in the Med. Trans: in which this method has proved successful. Professor Clapton of Dublin with the help of a Robang with two strings fastened to the end took a Goose Quill out of an Esophagus by entangling the feathers past on the string. Many ingenious men have contrived various instruments to take bodies out of the Esophagus. Dr. Hunter has an Esophagus in which an halfpenny is lodging which was the occasion of Death. Small sharp bodies, such as Pins, needles, &c when swallowed do in general but little mischief. The Cristallization will have more Effect on the heart, or thickest head. By that means, the needle, or Pin will be carried thro all the convolutions of the intestines with the head foremost with great Security. Such small bodies will often work their way from the Esophagus. & other part of the Alimentary Tube thro the flesh without causing suppuration. It comes out at a very distant part, because all motion will tend to force the body of the needle out. So, the head being blunt. It is wonderful what becomes of some things that are swallowed & never heard of after the the tools have been most grimely impaled. Wounds of the Esophagus are generally fatal. They are most commonly attended with wounds of other principal parts. In these cases we must support the strength by nutritive & opiate, & avoid disturbing the Esophagus by swallowing. Bochart describes a case in which the Esophagus was ruptured quite transversely just above the Diaphragm. A man was carried to St. George's Hospital with a fractured skull, quite soncely from the moment of the accident, of which he died. he was weeping, and thrown by his antagonist on a

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Scarble. Blood. — Dr Hunter as he was just examining the Thoracic Disease, accidentally discovered a longitudinal rupture of the Aerophagus, & supposed it was done by his Antagonist at the time of the Throw, having one arm round his neck, so as to compress the Aerophagus, & the other round his belly so as to press the contents of the Stomach into the Aerophagus, & burst it in. The Stomach is a very nervous sensible part. The nerves of different parts seem to convey a different kind of feeling to the mind, hence when the Stomach is wounded or hurt, the pain seems to be very generic, it is not an acute pain but exceeding sharpness, the Patient is unmaned, & sinks surprisingly fast. — The Stomach appears to be a great center of sympathy with all parts of the body, hence a Gravida, when food is impeded — Pregnant Women liable to frequent Vomiting, because in the first Month, the Constitution requires but little nourishment, or they would be too full of blood. — When Poison has been taken, we should give an Emetic that will operate quickly, as White Wine. If the Poisonous Substance is of that kind which may be diluted, we should give large quantities of Oil, Milk, &c. and when the Stomach is well cleared, we must purge, and give plenty of watery things. — Wounds of the Stomach are almost always mortal, in Ulcers are not infrequent in the Stomach, & especially about the Pylorus, and are attended with great haemorrhage. — Diseases of the Stomach especially when attended with Inflammation are very irritable, when there are frequent Vomiting, we may suspect the Stomach to be considerably affected, and we are led to say, they are caused by Ulcers, or Scirrhous, for it most commonly happens from other causes. — It is probable that most Cases of irritable Stomachs are owing to some incapacity in the Stomach.

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Stomach to digest properly. By attending to the quantity and quality, that the Stomach is able to bear, and adhering to that, in time it will recover itself and become gradually able to digest strong, and stronger food; often times 2. Teacupfull of any liquid will cause a violent vomiting &c from its bulk, while a Spoonfull of the same kind will be digested kindly. A Boy of about 12 years of age was very much reduced and troubled from frequent vomiting, so that whatever was given him would not remain on his Stomach. The fault was, that he took food of a different quality, and more in quantity than it could digest, so that it was rejected; for by attending to what quality of how much of food agreed, he got well; he took so small a quantity as a Spoonfull of Milk, for a qual, which agreed perfectly well, so that the Stomach had time to recover itself, and as that happened, the quantity was increased till he could digest any kind of food.

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Lecture 5th.

It is very hard to guess at the nature of internal disorders whatever some People, may pretend to do. Dr Hunter once found an encrusted Tumour on the inner Surface of the Duodenum near the Office of the Duodeno-pancreatic Choloductus which it was impossible any one should have known. Sometimes there are found little knobs on the Villous foot, which seem to have been mistaken for small pox pustules on the external surfaces, but they are little pustules or grains upon the Villi, rare found in people not affected with small pox. This appears to be an inflammation & suppuration peculiar to the Villi externally exposed, & not having the least tendency to affect internal unexposed surfaces, for the Villi in others where this is not the case are not affected with small pox. In these cases where Dr Hunter has seen a woman with child affected with this small, the child has sometimes or other afterwards had the small pox, as others have it, so that it appears that the first is never communicated to the child from the mother. Ulcers in all the intestines are very common, & are always attended with diverse & indented Insoncious glands. Disease of the Sanguiferous vessels, they are stuffed full of the coagulable part of the lymph, coagulated in them. In the Ileum a little above the Cæcum is frequently found a Diverticulum or Pouch of Intestines. One of this kind was found to have formed a cavity of itself by a Person who operated to free the Intestine. Sometimes the Coat of the Small Intestines are found full of a whitish, chalky substance, this is an ossification of the Intestine. Mr Chorlton mentions an ossification found in the Omentum of a Sheep, which is a very common thing. In the Cæcum is the place where indigestible things will most likely lodge, at one time it was the custom to swallow Garry Stones along with the Peeps, which accumulated in the Cæcum & caused inflammation & above, towards the right groin, which being opened gave discharge to the Stones.

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Stone, & this was fatal to many People. The Cæcum made a pouch that became a receptacle for every thing that was indigestible in Man in Cornwall had a suppuration in his Cæcum, as was supposed from a neglected rupture & inflammation about three Inches of the Intestine was extracted & cut off; the Wound healed up & the Stools passed as usual, & the man got perfectly well; sometime afterwards he died as Mr. Simmonds of Exeter Opened his Body; the Gut that was cut off was found to be the Appendix Cæcæ Vermiformis, & long side of the Cæcum, so that the Canal was entirely a passage left for the Cæcum to go on to the Anus. This Case is publick'd in the Med. Obs. &c. and probably was a suppuration from an accumulation of indigestible Mallet or hardened Fæces in the Cæcum. Almost all Ulcers in the Intestines are attended with purging, probably enough from the irritation produced by the discharge from them. Sometime, the Ulcer contracts the Canal of the Intestine & produces the Ulcer Paroxysm from Obstruction. Dr. Hunter knew a Lady that died soon after having had a copious Stool of pure blood. It was found to proceed from an Ulcer of an artery by an Ulcer in the Stomach. Sometimes an Ulcer is found in the Extremes of a truly Cancerous Rating which keeps up a constant irritation, and the Stomach & other parts of the Bowels are affected by sympathy. A French Woman had several hard Tuberclæ at the lower part of the Intestine, which produced a constant Tenesmus of her Stomach seem'd to be the part affected. She took Linctuæ & other Medicines but to no purpose, for at length the Ulcer became one large Cancerous sore before she died. Sometimes without taking any violent Purgation, or from any other apparent cause, the Stools are black; this was supposed by the Ancients to be occasioned by Black Bil, or the Bilis as they call'd it. It is owing to Blood carried into the Intestines from an Ulcer'd Bowel, which blood is full of the Natural colour, & is changed to a darker & darker colour, as it goes farther from the Bowel; which was evidently the Case in a body

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a body that Dr. Hunter observed & that died with this complaint, In this case we must naturally suppose that all Purgative Medicines will be of great detriment. The Stone that comes away in the Diætety is picked out from the Colon & Rectum, particularly from the last; this was found to be the case in those bodies that died of the Epidemic Diætety some years ago, of Dr. Hunter says, that he found the little glands of the Intestines Colon & Rectum enlarged, & full of Slime & In Diætety as to Stools the body may be said to be empty for no feculent Matter comes away, & if a Purgative be given, then a great quantity of hard feculent Stools are brought away. People have often a collection of hard Stools accumulated in the Rectum which are not discharged, this a Purgative is given, these should be broken with the fingers, or a Spoon, & a Lye & then thrown up to bring them away. There are a few cases related of the Intestines being wounded & broken so as to form with some external part of the Abdomen an Artificial Anus. Allainus has given the Case of a Man that was wounded on the side at the battle of Marcellus, & the Weapon cut into his Colon, the disordred Intestines uniting with the Integument round the Wound, & made an Artificial Anus in the side. Such injuries have frequently occurred from Wounds of their Intestines. In this Country it often happens that a Cow or an Ox gets into a field of Clover, or of Turnips, & by eating of them becomes blown up with air in the Intestines, & so greatly disordered. The Country People to relieve the Beast pierce the Intestines in several places with a pointed knife to let out the air, & it commonly gets well after it. A Farmer that was rubbing the Towels of a horse with a long piece of wood, happened to let it go, & the horse swallowed it, some time afterwards it made its Way and this the side of the Abdomen. Three Species of Worms are commonly found in the Intestines: the first is the Tapeworm, the second is the Earthworm: the second is the Tapeworm, the third is the jointed worm: the worms of this species are full of joints, & the different appearance that these joints

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Joints make is commonly owing to the different contraction they suffer at the time of their Death. There is some Variety however in the internal structure of the joints of Vape Worms. Each Tho has a Carnifying Tube within its speck in their Middle, & it has been disputed whether this is one Worm or a Chain of Worms. At D^r John Hunter from observing that each Joint can contract & move independently of any other, is of Opinion that it is a Chain of Animals adhiring together, as we often see other Animals of this perfect kind do; it is found more in Switzerland, than in any other Country. The third kind of Worm, to which Children are very much Subject, is the Leucides, a very small Worm, & many of them are always found together in the same body. Another Worm of an extraordinary nature has been described in the London D^r Est: said to have come from the body of a Man in America; but D^r Hunter, who has got it, doubts the truth of the story, as he never saw any thing like it before.

Much has been said about the new & other Infirmities supposed to arise from Worms, because at those times Worms have been passed, but they are often passed in good Health. Children especially who are said to die of worms, few of them lately facund die of the Hydrocephalus Internus, & when they have been said to have died from worms, upon opening the bodies no worms have been found, so that it is most likely, that worms do little, or no mischief. In Cases of other Illnesses Worms are away from the body for the same Reason that Plants have an house when it is on fire, as was observed to D^r Hunter by a Friend of his a Surgeon at Newcastle.

The Breast

Lecture 5th

The Situation of the Breast is well known; it is a glandular body for the
secretion of Milk, which it excretes only at particular times. The glandular
Substance is intermixed with a considerable quantity of Fat; Some consider
it as one gland, some as a Cluster of Glands; its inside is pretty flat, & lays
on the Pectoral Muscle; Mr Winslow describes it as enclosed in a Capsule,
but there is nothing like this appearance, as the glandular part is so
singular, that the Capsule must have gone in every where round it, if
there was any, it could not be missed off; what he describes as a Capsule
is only cellular Membrane. The glandular part is plainly distinguished
by its white colour, from the Fat which is yellow, & in great quantity, running
in some parts almost thro' the body of the Breast. The edges of the Breast are
exceeding irregular, & are insensibly lost in the cellular Membrane; a little
Pump or fold of Tissue from the Breast runs quite into the Arm Pt under
that anterior part of the Pectoral Muscle, which Dr. Hunter calls
the Anterior fold of the Arm Pt. — Therefore when we want a Breast for Preparation
we should cut it off very large, least we wound the edges of the Pt, & the
injection escape thro' the divided Tubuli; we should cut off a part of the
Integuments of the Arm Pt especially on the glandular Substance in a flaccid
breast feels hard & knotty, because the Fat is soft & fluid between the different
parts of the glandular Substance, this is more particularly the case in Old
Women; when there is but little fat in them the breast feels exceeding flaccid
& tough as leather — Women dread Cancer and Scirrhus, and when our
Judgment is asked for violent pains in the breast, we should be cautious that
these knots do not deserve, the best way to judge is to compare the bad
breast,

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Breast, with the other; if it fails the same we may be pretty sure, it is not a
Scientious Case, for it usually happens that only one Breast is Scientious at once,
In a Woman that is with Child, or that gives Lacte, the Glandular Tissue dance is
soft & red, from its having a great Number of Tissues that carry red Blood, the
Breast has no Center of Ramification, for its blood Vessels are principally from
the Axillary Branches; beside Arteries, Veins & Glands, & nerves, it has Excretory
Ducts, the Subtilli Sectifer, which have a Center of Ramification at the Nipple.
The Nipple is nothing more than a bundle of these Tissues connected together by
Cellular Membrane, & has generally from Twenty to Thirty Ducts on it. These
Subtilli are small at the Nipple, and increase as they recede from it, & become small
again; they serve as reservoirs for the Milk, for the Breast has no proper Bag
or bladder, as the Liver & Kidneys have. When the Subtilli begin we don't
know, but says he could injest them with Drifts from the Uterus,
but as no one has done it, we doubt what he says. At Holborn, & the present
Professor knows say, that they are a famous wound the nipple
which don't appear to be true. There are Sebaceous Glands around the Basis of
the Nipple in the Areola. In Young Young Women when with Child, the Nipple
& Areola alter their colour to a deep Brown, or black colour like the Skin of a
Negro. This Change is looked upon as a strong mark of Pregnancy, this some
times it does not change during all the time of being with Child, after
Delivery it commonly becomes to former Sive's Colour. In the Adult
body there is nothing glandular under the Nipple, but there is in the Testes
both Male & Female, and in very young Children. It is a common thing for
Children a few days old to have their little Breasts inflame, grow full, & have
a quantity of fluid in them similar to Milk, which when the inflammation
has subsided, may be squeezed out in considerable quantity. Dr Hunter
never knew one end in suppuration. There have been accounts of Milk being
secreted in

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secreted in the Breast of a Man, but Dr Hunter never could discover any fluid glandular appearance in any Man. Milk was supposed to be drawn by the glandular secretion of the Breast, but as the fluid was supposed to be drawn by the glandular secretion of the Breast, it was said that Milk, which is a fluid not yet perfused into blood, has the property of growing sour, because it is made principally of Vegetable food, & further that the Milk of Animals, who live on Animal food putrefies, but will not grow sour in Standing. This was generally believed, but Dr John Hunter proves the Contrary, for he fed a Duck on Drapery, Water, & nothing else, the Milk that she gave grew as readily sour as any other Milk taken from an Animal that feeds only upon Vegetables, from this experiment it is uncontrollable that Milk is a secreted fluid prepared by something more than a mere evaporation, & has new properties given to it in the Breast. There is hardly any difference between the Milk of different Women, one perhaps shall have it a little thicker than another, but both are equally good for nourishment, tho the thinner is commonly preferred even when so thin as to appear clear; the best way to judge of the consistence of Milk is to catch a little in a Glass, & shake it round the sides, there is a remarkable sympathy between the Breast, & the Uterus, they increase very fast at the time of Puberty, & so have accounted for the Breast swelling in pregnancy from the engorgement of the Artery being compressed by the gravid Uterus, which may well cause a greater quantity of blood to flow to the upper part of the body. Now in Drapery the compression of this Artery is often greater than during the time of pregnancy, yet the Breast do not swell, it is plain that it cannot be explained on Mechanical principles. It is a common observation, that if the Child die in Utero, the Breast from being fully engorged grow flaccid all at once, A Woman was buried so as to have a Child in Utero killed, three or four days afterwards the Breast swelled very much, & six or seven days after the Child came away quite putrid, in one sense Labour might be said to labour on the Death of the Child, & then in three or four days after the usual time after delivery she began to make ready the Breast, for the next

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The secretion of the Milk - That Milk which is secreted & is not drawn out of the Breast, is absorbed into the Constitution; while the Milk is going off, there is commonly a little Fever with Digaetion, and the Lymphatic Glands in the Breast, swell from the depletion of Milk. It is a general rule at this time to keep the body Warm, & rub the Breast with Warm Oil, & if they grow hot & fiery to apply an poultice, & leave them to break of themselves, & afterwards to apply nothing, but poultices, as they will almost do well. Cancer hardly ever comes from the Milk except, or the sore that is left by the Abscess sovoldon, that Dr Hunter never knew but one case of Cancer, that was ever suspected of this beginning. Salivaries may be absorbed from the Skin of the Breast, & lodged within the gland. - A Lady had used some Camphorated Spirit of Wine to her Breast, which was inflamed, but before it supplicated, she discontinued the use of it, when the Abscess broke, the Matress emitted offensively strong f Empyema, the Nurse had been used for a fortnight.

The Lungs

They are divided into the right & left Lungs. The Subdivision of the Lung has no connection with that of the Heart. Each Lung is subdivided into lobes, the left is always divided into two by an oblique fissure, the right lobe has a little fissure, & another small one, so that it is divided into two large, & one small portion. Each lobe seems to be composed of small lobes, & between them are the Lymphatic Vessels. In figure they represent exactly an Ovis Testis; they are every where loose except just where the great Vessels enter; anteriorly they make a concavity in which the Heart in its Pericardium is lodged. The great Vessels enter immediately in the middle of the Lungs; on the inside this part is called the Root of the Lung. The great Vessels at first the Aorta Arteria which divides into two branches, one to

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in to each Lung, and enter before the Blood Vessels, secondly the Blood Vessels are the Pulmonary Artery, and Veins. The Artery, just behind the Aorta divides into two branches, both of which go to the lungs, the right is by much the longest; the left is very short. From each lung two Pulmonary Veins come, which enter into the left auricle of the Heart behind, a little below all the other Veins from the Heart. The Trachea or tube of the Trachea Asthma is composed of a number of cartilaginous rings, called the Sigmoid Cartilages, these rings are joined together by a membranous, or mucous substance so that the Canal is cartilaginous before and laterally, and mucular behind; each ring is joined to that above and below it by a ligamentous substance which is a little flaccid. All along the mucular part are small grains supposed to be glands, called by Anagagni the Tracheal glands. The Trachea is lined internally with a smooth membrane which is a continuation of the Intestinal membrane of the mouth. These Sigmoid Cartilages as they approach the bifurcation of the Trachea, become more irregular till their form is quite lost. The Trachea has this particular structure to resist the pressure of the Atmosphere, and retain a passage for the air into the Lungs. If the Trachea had been a flexible tube like the wind, we could not have breathed, because its sides in inspiration would be closed as the cheeks are drawn inward; and bone would not have been so well as Cartilage, because every branch in inspiration would stretch, and bend considerably; the Structure of the Trachea is different in different Animals. The Tracheal glands secrete a mucus which serves to keep the internal surface moist; the thinner part of this mucus is carried off by the air, while the thicker stagnates; now had the Trachea been a cartilaginous all round this mucus could not be carried up, because the inspired air would press it as much

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as much down, as the action of the Diaphragm in coughing would throw it up, but the muscular part can so contract the passage in inspiration, that the air cannot pass without forcing it out. Besides the Blood carried into the Lungs by the Pulmonary Artery (which may be considered as bad Blood from having gone to nourish the Bronchial Artery: Galen however thought not that it was a Blood Vessel) the Extremities of the Air Vessels terminate in very small Cells, which become apparent on injecting Quicksilver into the Trachea, and drying the Lungs. It has been supposed that the Extremity of each Air Vessel was dilated and formed its own proper Cell. The Lungs have Sympathetic Vessels, which run on their Surface between the Pores, these pass thro' Sympathetic Glands placed principally in the Angle between the two branches of the Trachea, they are of a bluish Colour like the Colour of the Lungs themselves.

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The Use of the Lungs

Lecture 5th

The Lungs are undoubtedly for Respiration. Some of the Organs of Respiration are actuated by the Respiratory Muscles by these the Ribs; others are passive as the Lungs, which perhaps are a little actuated Respiration by their Elasticity. The Chest may be considered as the Board of a pair of bellows, the Lungs are the cavity of the Bellows, & the Trachea as the pipe of the bellows: when the Chest is dilated there is a Vacuum within the Lungs, & the Air rushes in, this is Inspiration; when the Chest contracts, it presses against the Lungs, & expels the Air, this is Respiration. There is never any Air in the Chest, tho' this has been contradicted; for if you immerse a body under Water, & puncture the Chest the Water will seep in, but the Air comes out of a Bubbly noise, provided that the Air is not loose into the Chest by Distension. It is said that the Blood is compressed, compressed in the Lungs; in Inspiration there can be no compression, for every thing within is then entirely passive; compression does not begin till the time of Respiration. Respiration seems to be the most natural state of the Lungs, & more passive than Inspiration; for their Elasticity contracts them to a flaccid state, & expels the Air, & is therefore the last Action of Life; this very weight tends to contract them. The Pleaon of the Succession of Alternation of this Motion has not as yet been made out, tho' many have contended for it; it is a mixed motion, that is, voluntary & involuntary. Some Physiologists have said that the Ribs are compressed in Inspiration by the Action of the Muscles, which then become Paralytic, and Respiration follows from the Elasticity of the Cartilages of the Ribs & Lungs, & then the Muscles acting as before the same thing follows again; but the Muscles are made to act very strongly in Respiration. This Motion is something necessary to Life, for if it be stopped

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Stopped, we grow weak, & cannot continue stopping it any longer, & therefore
D. Wright says, it is a Motion in which the Genes are chiefly concerned; It is very
plain, that it is not made out by any Physiologist, generally but a small quantity
of Air is thrown in & out at one time in an easy unconcerned Respiration, since
Dr. Hale's Experiments on Respiration all tend to agree that the blood circulates
quicker in the Lungs, than in any other part. Dr. Hale makes it also times
quicker; If this was the Case we should find the Capillaries of the Pulmonary
artery thicker than they are, but they are weaker & thinner than in any other artery.
The Blood that has been carried to all parts of the body by the branches of the
aorta, is unfit for that use again till it has passed thro' the Lungs; If this
animal has but fresh Air thrown into the Lungs, it is not necessary they should
act to continue this life, for Dr. Hook opened a Dog's Chest, & made several
punctures into the Lungs, then he put the pipe of a pair of bellows into the
Mouth by the Throat, & by forcing in fresh Air kept the Lungs constantly distended,
as the Air made it easy, and at the Sarcinum; by this means the Lungs moved
not at all, the Dog continued breathing strong, for a length of time, till he kill'd him;
This Motion don't correspond to the Motion of the Heart, for tho' we may inspiration
voluntarily, the pulse continues just the same, unless we force it exceedingly;
after death the Lungs are always found distended with Air, the quantity of
Air that is inspired at the last of life, is not afterwards all thrown out in
respiration, for the Chest not moving, compressing the Lungs, they contain always
some Air in their state of greatest inspiration. Some Animals have no Lungs.
In Fish Respiration is carried on by the Gills in All Animals that have breath'd
require fresh Air; the Fish don't require it so often as we do. The Child in Utro
lives without breathing, but it has a circulation from the Placenta which answers
the same Purpose, & if the Naval String is compress'd the Child dies in whatever
interrupts Respiration in a breathing Animal, kills it in a few minutes. It
was said that an hanged Person died merely from Respiration being stopped but
not from

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not from Apoplexy by the Veins of the Head being compressed so that the Blood accumulates in the head; others have said that the Spinal Marrow is crushed by the Vertebrae being broken, but as they hang People dead by their neck is not broken, when People are apoplectis they don't always die immediately, but lie moaning for some days, now hanged People die in a few minutes always, so that their Death depends upon the Obstruction of Respiration, without which we cannot live above five Minutes. It has been said that drowned People die from the quantity of water swallowed down; but it is found that the quantity of water is always very small. Others have said that a Drowned Animal was suffocated from taking Water into the Songs. But in fact it does not, for never any is taken in till the Animal is become Senseless. It dies from losing the benefit of Respiration as those do that die from being hanged. The Dutch have lately attended a good Deal to the curing of People accidentally drowned, & in many Cases they have succeeded; to be of service this way, we must take any Thing that gives warmth of Circulation, by rubbing the body all over with any thing that is harsh, we must force fresh Air into the Songs which is the best Stimulus, & get warm Cordials into the Stomach to invigorate, Warm Wine should therefore be syringed into the Stomach by a flexible Tube put down the Oesophagus, by these means People may perhaps be revived who otherwise would have been lost. When People die suddenly, it is called Apoplexy, & commonly happens from the Rupture of some principal Blood Vessel near the Heart, or perhaps from a Rupture of the Heart itself. The late King's Death was occasioned by the bursting of the right Atrium so that the Blood got into the Pericardium. It happened immediately. Mr John Hunter that no Animal is Amphibious as we accept the term, for a Turtle has lungs & must breathe, tho' he can live for a considerable time without breathing so can a Dove, & so can a Duck, but they don't breathe after a longer a shorter space of time; he observes that Fish will live Ponds but are driven forward of Air, but if the Air is broken they are not affected, in which is fatal to animals

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Animal, & so is inflammable Air. The common Atmosphæria Air is the only Air that is fit for Inspiration, & will support us in life very well from 16° to 115° Fahrenheit. However a Bear in Siberia lives in Air 30° underneath of Frozen-hit Thermur: The Atmosphæria Air contains some quality for Inspiration, & for the burning of fire it has its Pabulum Vite & Flammæ, this Pabulum is consumed by Respiration, Fire, & then the remaining Air is unfit for either, & will kill an Animal, or put out fire; this is one of the Discoveries of Dr. Priestley: the Dr. further observes, that Air which has had its Pabulum Vite destroyed by an Animal, having breathed it, will have its Pabulum renew'd by fire burning in it, so as to be again fit for Respiration, on the contrary that Air which has had its Pabulum Flamma destroyed by fire burning in it, & extinguished the fire, will have its Pabulum renew'd by an Animal breathing on it, so as to become again fit for fire to burn in it: An Animal does not live without a Fire go out, till the Pabulum of Fire, or of fire is destroyed: the Pabulum of the Air is different from that of the other: The fixed Air that is not driven from the dissolution of bodies floats in the Atmosphæria Air, & would accumulate under the other unfit for Respiration but it is dissolved by Water especially by running Water, so that it does not accumulate so much as to make the Atmosphæria Air totally unfit for Respiration, for this reason it is that place situated nigh to running Water are most healthy. Fixed Air is heavier than Atmosphæria Air; this is particularly evident in the Volcano del. Caune, in Italy for in this Cave there is always a considerable quantity of fixed Air, which being heavier than the Atmosphæria Air falls down, & covers the ground only, to a certain height above the Surface, all above that is Atmosphæria Air, so that if a Dog goes into the Cave, his head not being higher than the fixed Air, he is killed directly by it, but if a Man goes in, his head being higher than the fixed Air, he can remain there with impunity so long as he pleases. Dr. Priestley finds that Air made unfit for Respiration by fire, having been breathed in, is again made fit for a Plant growing in it: the Pabulum Vite is restored by vegetation going forward in it. It is a question what immediate Use Respiration is of to an Animal? The Ancients supposed it gave the animal vivifying heat, but that does not depend upon Respiration as Mr. John Hunter thinks that heat arises from some Animal Process within, that is not understood

The Use of the Liver

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understood, & that we have in the principle of heat, Coldest heat is generated in us as well as heat in the standard of heat is about 98° of Fahrenheit Thermometer; in all degrees of the Atmosphere, and an animal generates more or less heat in proportion as he loses more by it flying off to heat the surrounding Atmosphere, for if that is hot he will generate but little, because he loses but little; if that is cold he will generate more because he loses more; he finds there is a principle to generate cold, for a man in the cold fit of an Ague, or that grows sick at the Stomach, grows soonest cold internally, than if he were an animal previously heated to the same degree; he finds that the animal juices are proof against freezing, till life is destroyed, for a fish cannot be frozen till after it is killed by the cold, & if it is killed it will keep the water immediately surrounding for some little distance, in a fluid state. It was thought that an animal would be killed by the heat arising from the many Processes going on within it, were it not for the act of Respiration cooling it; but this is wrong, for the heat of a man's body is the same internally, in cold as in hot weather, & is never killed by an Atmosphere, considerably above its own standard of 98 Degrees of Fahrenheit Thermometer. Many have laboured to discover the effect which Respiration produces on the Blood, but no one has yet made it out. Mr John Hunter thinks that it carries off some noxious Effluvia from the Pungs, & thus keeps us alive, but he can make out no more, than that it is necessary for life, & that it alters the colour of the Blood. Respiration is of use to us in breathing, for sending the Air over us as a Vehicle for the noxious Effluvia, but its most principal Use is that it gives Voice, on Inspiration we produce this sound

Diseases of the Lungs

Lecture 38

Difficulty of respiration may arise from various causes; Water in the cavity of the Chest on the outer surface of the Lungs will prevent it by preventing their being duly expanded. In this case it is a common Symptom for People to awake out of their sleep in fright of horrors with Palpitations of the Heart: If the Water is only in one side of the cavity, yet it presseth the flesh by parts towards the other side, so affects that: People with this Complaint can always lay best on the diseased side, because this side is in a manner useless, & if they lay on the well side, the weight of the body presseth on the ribs of that side, which is a great impediment to their Action. Water in the Abdomen presseth the Diaphragm upwards, which makes People with this disease breath best in an upright posture, because then the weight of the Water will tend downwards, but if they lay down, it requires great force of the Muscles to counteract its pressure; In Scrophulogonial Habit, sometimes the whole cellular Membrane of the Lungs shall be full of Water, while perhaps there is but little Water in the cavity of the Thorax: we cannot distinguish this case from the other by the Symptomes, it can only be done by dissection after Death, & is extravasated in the substance of the Lungs or cavity of the Thorax has the same effect as Water, because it takes up Room; this was one Symptom in the Black Cattle, when they were diseased in such great numbers about 20 years ago, they had a general Emphysema, many of them were extravasated in the Lungs. The most common Disease of the Lungs is Inflammatory Suppuration: the common consequence of Inflammation on the External Surface is Adhesions to the Pleura: when Suppuration happens it leads on to the true Pulmonary Consumption, the Matter which is formed having no expelling power is coughed up: Consumptions are most frequent from Puberty to the Age of 25, & most common to Scrophulaceous Habit: Persons so afflicted are apt to cough up alone, very hard mucus, & sometimes substances in form of concreting

The Diseases of the Lungs, The Heart

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varifying, vessels, these are not blood vessels, but impure called sinusses, which by stagnating in the vessels takes their form: in such cases there is a disposition in the Sacka to form on ostia caust similar to those sometimes found in the mouth: it is this matter covering the flesh that gives it that peculiar appearance.
The Heart is the great engine of Circulation: it is composed of four muscular bags, placed before the termination of the Vein, at the beginning of the Arteries, two from when the Veins arise, the auricles, of two from whence the Arteries arise, the ventricles; its apex or point is pretty regular, its Basis irregular; its under side is flattened & lies upon the Diaphragm; it has an oblique position in the body, its apex lying forward a little towards the left side, but the middle part between the right & left Pulmonary Veins directly backward; then the Heart is in its proper position. It is divided into the right & left auricle & ventricle: but Winslow on account of the oblique position causes to call them the Anterior & Posterior. Between the right & left auricular & ventricular is a septum, which we call Septum cordis, septum auriculorum & ventriculorum. The Veins terminate in the auricles, as far from the apex as possible, two in the right, of four in the left; the Arteries arise from the ventricles nearer to the apex than the auricles. The two auricles are applied to each other at their lower part, but there is a vacant space between them at their upper part, which is filled up by the two arteries which divide it, each other at their beginning. The right auricle was call'd by the ancient the Sinus of the Vena Cava, if the left auricle was call'd the Sinus of the Pulmonary Arteries; the two little fleshy appendages to the auricles were by them call'd the Utricles, or little ears from their supposed resemblance to the ears of some animals. The use of these appendages seems only to be to fill up the void space, that the Heart may lie close, compact in the Pericardium: the Heart must be always injected in the Pericardium, that it may keep to its proper figure when distended. The ascending & descending Vena Cava enter the right auricle in an inclined direction to one another, so as both to direct their blood toward the middle of the cavity making an eminence call'd Tuberculum Sinus; the great coronary vein enters the under side of this auricle, the sides of the auricle are every where thin, tho' in some parts thicker than in others.

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The Heart

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It may be ask'd what prevents the blood from regurgitating into the Vena Cava Superior when the Auricle contracts, as there is no valve there; Dr Hunter supposes, that the muscular fibres first begin to contract thereby that means serve the purpose of one; then may be a little regurgitation. In the Cava Inferior there is no little fold of the intima, or valve called *Valvula Inflexibilis*, & evidently however is not a valve, for it is often fasciculated like the rest, with little projection in it; the muscular fibres here supply the want of a valve. For the *Septum auriculatum* immediately below the *Trabeculum carneum* in the neck, where the Foramen ovale was in the foetus, sometimes it is found open in the adult. Between the Cava Inferior & the passage into the Ventricle is the orifice of the great Coronary Vein. In that part of the Auricle which is far removed from the orifice, the sides are fasciculated like the rest, to hinder the blood better when there are great dangers of its stagnation. The Auricle by its contraction throws the blood into the right Ventricle, which is a strong muscular bag of fasciculated at the lower part, & the fleshy pillars going across from side to side. The orifice between the Auricle & Ventricle is surrounded by valves with loose floating edges projecting into the Ventricle; these are called *Valvulae Tricuspidae*, it is however but one membrane continued round with three points, therefore should be called *Valvula Tricuspidis*. The Pulmonary Artery arises from the Ventricle & afterwards divides into two branches, one to each lung; at its beginning are three valves, called *Valvulae Semilunares*, whose loose floating edges meet one another when the blood passes from the artery, & prevent regurgitation by stopping up the artery entirely. This artery carries the blood of which may be considered as bad blood (thus the lungs to be improved), it is brought back again to the heart by the four pulmonary veins (two from each lung) which enter the left auricle upon the *Septum auriculatum* of the Auricle the remains of the Foramen ovale may be complained. The Pulmonary Artery has no valves at their entrance into the Auricle, but we suppose that the muscular fibres of the Auricle begin their contraction at the orifice of the vein, so as to shut up this cavity.

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Cavity & prevent regurgitation. The internal surface of this Antricle is smooth because there being four & two running into it, the blood should not stagnate. The Left Antricle & Constrictor answers to what has been said of the right, only that they are much stronger. The Ventricles goes down almost to the Apera, which the other does not. It was necessary that the Ventricles should be much stronger than the other, because it throws the blood to all parts of the body, while the right only carries it to the lungs. The Constrictor is finely fasciculated towards the Apera, but where the blood could not possibly stagnate it is smooth. Between the Antricles & Ventricles are placed the Valvulae Trigonales, so called from their supposed resemblance of the two sides of a triangle; properly it is but one valve, Valvula Trigonalis, it produces the Contra Sentence that terminates in the Coronae Columnae, which are so situated as to leave as clear a space as possible for the passage of the blood. The Aorta begins at this Constrictor, & has three Conular Valves at its beginning like as in the Pulmonary Artery, at the place where the Valves make a middle fold with each other is placed a small protuberance on each, call'd the Cusps of Julius Caesar Accuratrix.

The very first branches that the Aorta gives off are the two Coronary Arteries, the right & left. These appear on the body of the heart, one on each side of the Pulmonary Artery, before they ascend & every where except the upper extremitas immediately before the beginning of the Artery, & their branches anastomose at this place. It was a common opinion that these arteries are not filled at the same time, as the others are, because it was thought that the Valves of the Aorta would press on their orifices & prevent their being filled during the Systole, but the conjecture is certainly not true. There is but one Principal Coronary Artery, which divides itself into the right Antricle, all the Prophets say that little branches of these two open into the right Antricle & Constrictor, & in a right angle into the left, & call them the Foramina Thebaica, but Dr. Hunter says there is no such in the human Heart. Mr. Cruikshank has seen them in a Bird's Heart. The Structure of the Heart is undoubtedly muscular. Galen did not allow it to be a muscle, he defines a muscle to be a part that contracts voluntarily, and therefore we need not wonder

wonder

The Heart

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I wonder that he disallows it, being a Truvelley more especially as he was unacquainted with the Circulation. No One understood how the principal part of the muscular fibres are in the Heart in the first place because the branches of the coronary Vessels intersect them, & secondly the fibres of the right side intermix with those of the left so that they cannot be traced. The pointed fibres of them are fixed to the tendinous ring around the Aorta, they then go down from the Bicus & form a kind of Web at the apex, & are lost in the Conus Carneus. Some fibres are common to both Ventricle, & a great number proper to the left. Dr. Hooke It is quite enough to know that these fibres by their Action diminish the Convexity of the Heart, & shorten it in every corner. The Internal Membrane of the Veins is continued to form the internal Membrane of the Atrioles Ventricle, & so goes on to the Atrium, and its Doubleing makes Valves.

The Circulation of the Blood

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Part the 59th

The general circulation of the Blood has been commonly divided into two, that which goes to all the parts of the body by the Aorta, and comes by the Vena Cava, is called the longer circulation; that which goes to the Lungs by the Pulmonary artery and comes by the pulmonary veins is called the lesser circulation. The Blood cannot be said to have gone the circulation till it has gone thro' both these; and a man unless he understood both could not be said to know the circulation — Galen made out a very plausible Theory which was the Standard of the Antients in their opinion of the Heart. He supposed that there were three general fluids in the body of great importance to it, besides several of an inferior nature, as the Lymph, Semen, &c. One of which they called the venous fluid made in the Brain, & carried to all parts by the veins for nutrition of the body; the second the Vital Spirit, made up in the left Ventricle, & carried by the Aorta to all parts, they said it was finer of a texture, and clearer than blood; they thought that the Pulmonary veins convey'd it from the lungs, & therefore call'd them arteries, but seeing that they had coats like veins, they named them the Venous Arteries; they thought that a fine part of the blood transudes thro' the septum arterium from the right into the left Ventricle; that this foulish mixt together with the air brought from the lungs made the Vital Spirit. The third the nutritious fluid the Blood, which they supposed to be made by the Liver from the Chyle extracted from the intestine by the Vena Portae. Being carried into it by the Vena Portae, that the Blood when made was carried out of the Liver by the Hepatic Veins, into the Vena Cava, they supposed that the Hepatic Veins made the Vena Cava above the Liver, which they call'd the Vena Cava Superior, which was divided at the Heart into two, that by this the blood went to the Heart to have the first part circulated from it to make the Vital Fluid, that the veins were continued into what we call the Vena Cava

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Vena Cava Superior; that the Blood which did not pass by the Cava Superior not soak this into the left Ventricle was carried by the Pulmonary Artery (which they called a Vein) to the Lungs for their respiration; they supposed that the Vena Cava below the Pectoral carried Blood to all the lower parts of the body; they did not suppose that the Blood circulated as we do, but said that it had an Influence of Reflexion in the Veins almost stagnating so the Circulation of the Blood may be proved in this manner; make a Ligature on a vein, and it will exsude on that side next the heart, & will on the other side open to above the Ligature, & it will not bleed, but open't below it, it will bleed till more Blood is obtained than the Limb could contain: this proves that the Blood moves in the Veins towards the Heart, & that they communicate with other Vessels; next make the same experiment on an Artery & the Phenomenon is directly asswred, which proves that the Blood in them moves from the Heart towards the Extremities; when a Vein is bleeding stop the Artery by which the Blood is carried into that vein, & the bleeding stops, which clearly proves that the Arteries & Veins communicate. In this manner we trace the Blood on to the head & when there, we find from its Structure that the Blood need of necessity go through of the Circulation — What puzzled Harvey a little, & was thought to be a strong Argument against the Circulation was this; it was observed that the Carotid Artery when tied pulsated above the Ligature of blood if punctured there, so that his Argument was, that it carries blood down from the Head as well as up to it; but this Objection he soon got over when he observed that this happened in consequence of the branches of one Carotid, and comming with those of the others. Physicians observing that they had no way of introducing Medicines into the blood but by the mouth of that by they had already a fixed Idea off were resolved to try what effect they would have on the circulation when infused immediately in the blood by injecting them in the Vein according

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accordingly it was tried, but it was found that a fluid, which is innocent when taken in the mouth, was exceedingly hurtfull when introduced into the blood. Immediately it was tried on many animals. Mr John Hunter found that an infusion of a piece of raw meat injected into the veins of a dog had the same effect as if it had been received into the stomach by the mouth, for that urine which excreted after the veins of another dog brought on suffocation & death. A speculation was afterwards started, whether there may not be a circulation of the fluids alone, or in other words, whether we may not become old as inferior to our blood being worn out, or become bad & dead if this is the case, whether blood transfused from a young or an healthy body into us would not make us young & healthy again. Sir Christopher Wren, Dr Boyle & Dr Lower took it up heartily, and experiments were made on many different animals, it was thought to succeed, but was soon after laid aside, for what reason is not certainly known; when Dr Harvey published his account of the circulation, it was very much opposed, & ill treated, but the more benevolent people gradually concurred in his doctrine, & yet would not allow him to be the discoverer, for said they Hippocrates & others of the ancients knew it, & made very trifling quotations with a view to support their ill-natured assertion: But it is certain that Hippocrates & all the great writers were ignorant of it, leaving those who were more ancient we come down to Servetus, who was born at Villanova in the year 1509, & therefore he called himself Villanovatus, in 1531 he published a little tractate de Trinitate in 4 volumes, & some years after became to Paris & studied Anatomy under Sedmilius, & was the immediate successor of Vesalius, in the year 1540 he settled as a Physician at Lyons, but his inclinations leading him more to the study of Divinity than Physic, he lived principally by the book-sellers at Lyons; His death was brought on by Calvin, & his adherents, in 1553 he was burnt at Lyons, on account of the errors he was said to have advanced in his theological studies. He was accused by Calvin of not only being an heretic, but an illiterate ignoramus, but by certain ways (calling him Nichola Villanovatus) that he was both a learned &

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learned by a good train of Instructing of the Divinity of the three Persons in the Trinity in his book de Trinitate mentis, he recollects the three humours of the body, & used them by way of simile, and as he proceeds his words plainly shew us, that he understood the Circulation of the Blood this the Pungs an Harvey afterwards made it out to be, but he did not know the other Circulation — Some have given the discovery of the Circulation to Vesalius, others to Columbus, but they know no more of it than Leiden had told them in Galapines knew the Circulation from the Arteria to the Vena Cava, for he said that Compression on the Veins proved it, but he had a very confused Idea of the Circulation in the Head, for he said that the Blood was sometimes carried up there by the Arteries, & down by the Veins, and sometimes vice versa, & that in Sleep the Circulation was either suspended, or ceased altogether — It is wonderful therefore from what Leiden & Galapines had said, that no Person made out the Circulation before Harvey's time — The thought does not appear to have arisen in any Person's mind, but Leiden & Galapines, of Harvey's — Harvey says he was led to think of it from observing the Pulse in the Veins —

The Circulation of the Blood

Lecture 60

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With regard to the beginning of the circulation Dr Harvey who observed the progress of the Chick in the incubated Egg supposed that the Blood was found before the Heart, or any thing else; that it was the primary source, that it stimulated the Heart to begin its Action, but he had not the help of Glaser - Malpighi inspited the incubated Egg with Microscopes; he saw the Evidement of the Chick before there was any appearance of red Blood, but could not determine which was the first appearance of Blood. With regard to the end of the circulation Dr Harvey thought there was Motion in the Blood after the heart had ceased to Act, & that this motion in the case of the Heart to Inodeon was the Stimulus of the Warm Blood. Haller opened the Chest of a Dog & observed that the left Ventricle did first, then the left Atrium, then the right Ventricle, & lastly the right Atrium; and he found that by tying the Vena Cava & thus intercepting the blood, he could make the right Ventricle die first of all. - Much has been said about the force of the Heart, that is what is commonly meant the force of the left Ventricle. Mathematicians have differed greatly in their Conjectures forward of Data to reason on. Borelli determined it to be equal to 135000 pound weight, and will by taking the best Data he could, make it equal to 20000. Dr Rotin after them took it up, he said that both were in the wrong, & that it was wrong to make it equal to such weight, that we ought to say it is equal to a body of such a weight moving with such Velocity in a given time, & therefore he made it equal to nine pounds one once moving with the Velocity of an Inch in a second of time. It is plain that Borelli in supposing it equal to so many thousand pounds weight had not for the Valves between the Ventricle & Ventricle could not have such a load. For when a Child Travelling leaps of itself, it is a very rare Case that an Hemorrhage occurs, but after Death by injecting

the Rorda

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The Aorta soon of the injection is easily forced out at the Gravel, a proof that the action of the Heart in the living body is not considerable. Various Calculations have been made of the quantity of blood in a body, as by Blood-Weighing all that fluid which has circulated thro' the Heart. D'Arctin supposed that a body weighing 165 pounds contained 8100 pounds of blood, but there does not appear to be any possible means of determining, so if we bleed Animals to death, we cannot be supposed to get out all the blood. The only action of the Heart's depends on the blood. It is the common Opinion that the Heart is active in Contractions of passive in Dilatation, but it appears that there is something active in its Diastole as well as in the Systole, for if a circular piece of a Turkey's heart be cut off it will both dilate & contract itself after the blood is removed. Some have endeavoured to account for the pulsation of the Heart against the Ribs by supposing that the muscular fibres of the Heart run in the form of an figure 8, so that in the Systole there was a twisting or lengthening of the fibre, and they say that in the Systole the Heart contracts in all its parts from the Apex to the Raxis. It must be drawn from the Ribs instead of beating against them. The reason is this, the Heart is at the beginning curved: the force with which the blood is thrown from the Heart tends to straighten the Artery by striking against the sides, this it can't do, because the Artery is fixed by the Spines, & therefore the Heart recoils with a jerk. When a Person is sitting quite still with one knee up the other, we can see the foot move & each pulsation of the Arteries from the blood endeavours to run in a straight line, as the Motick will be more manifest in proportion as the action of the heart is stronger. The proportion between the quantity of blood capable of being contained in the right & the quantity capable of being contained in the left side of the heart cannot be determined. For in the first place, where do the veins terminate? It is the general Opinion that the right side is smaller than the left, tho' it is plain the same quantity of blood must pass thro' each, neither can we determine the proportion between the number of the ventricle, because we can't draw the line of partition.

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partition between them with any certainty. Dr. Valer Haller imagines that the Heart contracts so as to expel out every drop of blood that the arteria collonna fall into the Vessel spaces. Harvey & almost every body else supposed that the two ventricles acted together; if so, the ventricles actives must of course do the same; that the contraction of the atria makes the dilatation of the ventricle, & the contraction of the ventricle makes the dilatation of the artery, so that the ventricle & the arteries act together. Dr. Hichtoll thinks that the atria, ventricle & artery on the right side are contracted at the same time, that the atria, ventricle & artery are well on the left side, and alternately first the atria, then the ventricle, and then the arteries. Dr. Hunter has had a doubt of Harvey's being in the right, for he opened a dog & made a little puncture in each ventricle, this which he observed the blood to come at the same instant. This he told to Dr. Hichtoll, but he said that the right ventricle being thin, the blood would connect at the puncture or out of a hole in the bladder, & that the left ventricle being thick the muscular fibres would contract the office of the puncture had as a valve when they were contracting in this whole, and that it was at the time of their relaxation that the blood would come thro', so that the blood would come this from the right ventricle at the systole, & from the left ventricle in the diastole. Dr. Hunter then repeated the experiment by threading two small sponges, one into each ventricle, & then the injection being with drawal of the cannula after, the blood came this both the consta at the systole during the systole. As the office of the heart is so important, I cannot ascertain yet, Dr. Harvey, Adhesions between the pericardium are very frequent which may probably be the cause of palpitation, of these little irregularities in the liver which we sometimes meet with. We sometimes find too great a quantity of liquor in the pericardium, as frequently the valves of the heart are found partly dissolved. In those who expire almost instantaneously the cause is commonly in the heart, or one of its principal vessels, tho' it has been generally supposed that they die from a disease of the brain. The spleen is often found inflamed, sometimes suppurrated, which was the case with the late Lord Middlesex & Dr. Pate. Both complained of great pain, & yet it was very extraordinary, neither of them could describe the seat of their pain, tho' at

The Diseases of the Spleen, Pancreas, & Liver

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tho' at times it was exceeding violent as to make them expect most vehemently. Sometimes it is found ^{whip}ped up almost to nothing, & sometimes is greatly enlarged, yet often it turns to its natural size. A Woman after Delivery had such a fullness of hardness at the bottom of the Abdomen, that she was thought to have another Child either lost, but by examining the Utter with a probe, was found contracted, so that there could be no other Child remaining. The Woman died upon opening the body, the Spleen was found greatly enlarged, & had changed its situation, so as to give the appearance of a Child in Utter when the Abdomen was examined. That thing call'd an Abuse ^{abuse} is supposed to be an indurated Spleen, but Dr. Hunter never got an opportunity to dissect one who died of this Disease. The PANCREAS seems to be the part the most seldom suffer'd of any other in the body. Dr. Hunter has known an enlarged & turbous Pancreas. The cause of Jaundie by its prevalence on the Ductus Communis Choledochus, & Mr. John Hunter once found the Bile-duct greatly distended wth full of hard white Concretions. The LIVER is often found inflamed, & adjoining to the neighbouring parts, sometimes it suppures, but the Liver is always of a bloody Liver-colour. It is often found full of little Protuberances, & small collections of Pur intwined with this. Cysts of a peculiar nature are frequently found in the Liver; these bags which sometimes contain Water, sometimes Spermidine; often the bag is lined with a gelatinous membrane, & there is then only one Spermidine; sometimes it contains hundreds of Spermidine. By an Spermidine we mean a body detached all round, commonly swimming in Water, sometimes containing Water, at other times they appear flattened & gelatinous; there is no appearance of Vessel, or Organick Matter in them. In France, and some of the Antient, and Moderns have supposed them to be Worms. When these Cysts are situated on the back part of the Liver, they insallably destroy the Patient; if on the fore part, they sometimes pierce outwards of burst, but they generally prove fatal.

Part 1st

The Arteries

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Lecture 61

We take the Arteries first, & then the Veins, & because of removing them to come at the Aorta. We take first the Arteries of the lower Abdominal Viscera. The Aorta between the Diaphragm, & the bifurcation of the Iliacs gives off three Azygos Arteries. Just as it comes from under the Diaphragm it gives off the Celiac to the Stomach, Liver, & Pectoral, & Pancreas, then the Superior Mesenteric principally to the small Intestines, & then the Inferior Mesenteric principally to the large Intestines. The Celiac is the largest of the three; the Inferior Mesenteric is the smallest. The Celiac gives off the Coronary to the Stomach, the Hepatic to the Liver, & the Splenic Artery which running along the upper part of the Pancreas to the Spleen, gives off the Vasa brevia to the Stomach, immediately above the Ampulla of the Duodenum, the Superior Mesenteric artery, & the Duodenum passes under it, & turns, & what is called the Root of the Mesenteric. It gives off branches everywhere to the Mesenteric as far as the termination of the Ileum, & partly to the great bulk of the Colon. These branches anastomose very freely on the Mesenteric, & then sends a right branch to the Ileum. The principal branch of the Inferior Mesenteric Artery goes down obliquely on the left side, along with the Sigmoid flexure of the Colon behind the Rectum quite down to the Anus. The other branch runs to the right side, & is distributed chiefly to the Ileum Colon. These are the Arteries serving the lower Abdominal Viscera. The Aorta gives off, first the two Coronary Arteries, & then very small branches to the middle part of the Chest, the Thymus Gland, & mediastinum. From the upper part of the Curvature go off three branches, first the right Carotid, which soon gives off the right Subclavian; secondly the left Carotid; and thirdly the left Subclavian. The branches of the Carotid are in the same direction, on each side the Carotid runs up close to the Vertebra, near to, but rather behind the Spinal Arteria & Splanchnica. It runs the farthest of any artery.

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The Arteries

Artery in the body without branching, at the upper part of the Parotid it divides into two branches, the External and Internal Carotid so named not from their situation, but from the parts to which they are distributed. The External Carotid soon divides into many branches, the first which goes off is the Superior Guttural, which carries an amazing quantity of blood to the Thyroid gland, but for what purpose is not known, it also distributes some blood to the Tongue & neighbouring parts, the next branch is the Inferior Guttural, the next branch is the General, which mounts over the lower jaw, of Buccinator & nerve to the side of the nose, & gives off a pretty considerable branch to the upper & lower lip: this Artery runs in a horizontal direction above all those which cover parts liable to be stretched. The next branch, or rather the branch of the External Carotid Artery, runs up behind the Parotid Gland, of the lower jaw & emerges just before the ear, mounts upon the Temple, & then divides into two principal branches, which distribute the blood to the neighbouring parts; in its way to the Temple it gives off a branch inwardly, the Internal Maxillary of the upper jaw, from which goes the Superior Maxillary down to the Canal in the lower jaw to go thro that along with the nerve; it gives off also another little branch which goes thro an hole in the Basis of the skull to the Dura mater, the Artery of the Dura mater.

The Arteries

Lecture 62

The Dorsal carotid enters the skull at the anterior point of the Temporal Bone, passes upwards, gets upon the Os Sphenoides, to the Sella Turcica on the inside of the Optic nerve, where it sends off a branch to the Orbit, & pierces the Optic Nerve, & gives branches thro' all the contents of the skull.

A Dorsotomy has been supposed to be of greater service than Phlebotomy, in some local complaints, particularly in Diseases of the head. The Temporal Artery is commonly chosen for this purpose, it is difficult to open it in the same manner as we do a vein, because it is so small, & therefore we are advised to cut it transversely: if the artery is quite divided, it commonly bleeds impudently till about a Teaspoonfull is evacuated, then it shrinks & stops suddenly, & if it is not quite divided, it is sometimes difficult to stop the hemorrhage. It has been recommended to cut the artery coming from the internal carotid at the Sella Turcica, where it passes thro' the Supraorbital Forch at the upper part of the Orbit, but as we cannot avoid cutting some small twigs of the nerve which go to the Scalp along with it, as the bleeding will often stop before the desired quantity is obtained, it will be better to omit bleeding here entirely. The Subclavian artery comes off from the carotid, it passes before the transverse process of the last Vertebra, Colli, gets into the hole of the transverse process of the lowest but one of the Vertebra Colli, then runs up all the holes of the Superior Vertebra Colli, when it has passed thro' the Dorsata it makes a turn outward, to pass thro' the Atlas, which projects considerably from the other transverse processes, from hence it turns backward & gets thro' the Foramen magnum Occipital into the skull, then it pierces the Dura Mater upward & forward to the Pons Varolii, where it joins with its fellow, & they two become one trunk, called the Basillary Artery, which again divides into two branches that anastomose with the posterior branches of the Internal carotid. The anterior branches of the internal carotid join by a large anastomosis, & laterally they anastomose with the posterior branches, so that there is an anastomosis all round the Sella Turcica. Some have said that the Arteries which go

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which go to the sides of the Skell, especially the Vibratil. take their time to break the face of the Blood before it gets to the Basin: but these Veins & Pores in the Vibratil Artery seem to be no more than was necessary for the situation of the motion of the heat, & not to break the Impediment of the blood. In the internal Carotid it seems more probable that it is to break the Impediment. There is no doubt but that all Arteries carry the same Divised Mass of Blood from the Proximt Anastomosis that we observe. The Axillary Artery runs under the Tendons of the Pectoralis & Coracobrachialis, & through of the Biceps on the inside of the Br. Humeris is then call'd the Brachial. It runs gradually to the fore part upon the Brachicus Tendines, & commonly remains in a whole Trunk till it gets below the bend of the Arm, frequently however it divides before it gets there, sometimes it divides as high up as the axilla, but then the two branches run close together commonly, one immediatly above the other, till they have pass'd the bend of the Arm, then they separate on running more superficial call'd the Radial; the other branch deeper call'd the Ulnar Artery. The Radial Artery runs close to the Radice, it sends off a branch which comes up behind the outer Condyle of the humerus, & anastomoses with other very little branches that come down from the Trunk above the bend of the Arm. The Ulnar Artery too throwen off a branch upward, & behind the inner Condyle that anastomoses with small branches which come down from the Trunk above the bend. By means of these Anastomosing branches, the Circulation is kept up after the Trunk has been tied in the Operation for the Amputation, or fracture of the Artery in bleeding; both these branches come off nearly at the same part of the Arm, that is from the upper part of the Ulnary Radial Artery below the bend. Even if these branches should be wanting, yet we must consider the flesh of all parts of the body as composed of Vessels anastomosing with each other, & by this means the limb would be inviolated, tho' the Vessels might be so small as not to be traced by Injections in the Ulnar Artery runs deep under the Muscles above the bend of the Elbow, & passes close to the Pisiform bone on the inside into the palm of the Hand.

The Arteries

Hand, & at its upper part it gives off the interosseous Artery, which lies between
 the two bones, & supplies the parts thereabout. Dr Hunter supposes that in
 seven arms out of ten, the Artery does not divide into branches till after it has passed
 the bend of the arm, & that in seven Patients out of ten that have been injured in
 blood letting, the Artery will be found to have been divided before it has reached
 the bend. This at first view appears to be an absurdity, but the reason is this,
 when the Artery has divided into two branches before it has reached the bend, the
 one branch, generally, lying immovably under the other, is tied, & therefore
 by its laying, more superficial, it is more liable to be injured in performing
 the operation for the Anæstomosis, care should be taken to observe, whether it is the
 principal branch, or not which is wounded, because if it is a branch it should be
 drawn a little before it is tied, by which means the other branch is left to
 carry on the circulation, which otherwise in all probability would have been tied
 along with it: when only a branch is tied a pulse may be felt in the wrist or arm
 shortly after the operation, but when the principal branch is tied, no pulse is
 felt till after four or five days, when the anæstomosing vessels gradually
 dilate, & bring fresh blood; a weak pulse becomes sensible to the touch, the
 number gradually goes off, & in a month time a pretty good pulse may be
 felt, as the anæstomosing branches are dilated very much by the great quantity
 of blood that is obliged to pass thro' them, so that from very minute they become
 very considerable arteries, & being lengthened as well as dilated they become tortuous.
 This is a very conspicuous anæstomosis. But besides this the flesh of the
 body contains most numerous anæstomoses every where

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The Arteries

Lecture 63

The Radical Artery at the Cervix divides into two branches, the largest passes anterior and under the two Tendons of the Flexor Pollicis, & Secundi Interosseous Pollicis, near this the Angle between the first bone of the Thumby & Radial of the first Finger, in this Branch it gets from behind into the palm of the hand before the Second Thumby Fingers have an Artery on each side the Flexor Tendons, which over the whole length of the fingers, they are branched from the Under, & Radial Arteries, either of the large branches in the palm of the Hand are wounded, compression alone is not sufficient to stop the hemorrhage, because of the Intracardinal, & removes in taking off the Arm at the Shoulder Joint, cut thro' the Pectoralis, the short Head of the Biceps, & Coraco-Labiale, then we find the Artery close to the inside of the Humerus; it will often happen that the artery will be tied just below, when it gives off a considerable branch to the neighbouring Muscles, & other parts above the knot; in dissecting out the Artery of the body we shall necessarily divide the branch, which will cause a considerable gush of blood, it might make the Surgeon surprised, he had wounded the Trunk itself, & it must be secured with a Suture. The Bronchial Arteries arise from the forepart of the Descending Aorta, sometimes by one common Trunk, but most commonly by two. The Intercostals are generally one to each Rib; they come from the back part of the Aorta, & run along the lower edge of the Ribs, sometimes one arises from the Aorta between two Ribs by dividing into two branches; the first of which Ribs have generally their Intercostals from the Subclavian. The Aorta lying on the left side the Liver rather covers the left Intercostals. The Pheromus Artery (to the Diaphragm) generally arises distinct from the Aorta, & sometimes however along with the Celiac. This Artery in its passage downward gives off also the Radicular to the Nerves, the Peritoneal to the Testes, & the Lumbar arteries, just as it reaches the last Vertebra Lumborum it divides into two branches, the Iliac arteries, & at the very Angle of the Peritoneum arises an Oxygo Artery, the Sacral Artery. The Iliac Artery goes in the strictest sense along the projection

The Arteries

The projecting flaccid part of the Pelvis, & passes under Poupart's Ligament into the fleshy part of the Thigh: at the upper part of the Coccyx, the Iliac Artery divides into two, the external & internal Ileas. The external is what passes under Poupart's Ligament, & makes the great Canal of Guy. The internal Ileas passes down into the Pelvis, & is called the Hypogastric Artery: under Poupart's Ligament the external Ileas sends off two branches, the one ramifies, the other the Hypogastric Artery, which is reflected upwards on the inside of the Rectus Muscle. The Intestine is a Terminal Ileas, & sometimes passes down to the fleshy part of the Thigh under Poupart's Ligament on the inside of the Hypogastric Artery. In the Operation then if we cut upwards & outwards we shall cut the Spermatic Artery if it is a male, if we cut upwards & outwards we shall cut the Hypogastric Artery, if the Intestine should have passed down on the outside of the Hypogastric Artery, if we cut upwards & outwards we shall then avoid both arteries. The Ovarian Artery is a branch from the

Many large branches pass this the Sacro Ileal to the adjacent parts. The External Ileas is larger than the Internal in the Adult (adult in opposition to Fetus) in the Fetus it is the only Ileas: in the Fetus the External Ileas after having given off the Hypogastric branches principally to the uterus & vaginal in the female & to the bladder & vesical Sphincter in the male, makes a turn forward, passes up on the side of the Bladder & gets to the Gravel making the Umbilical Artery one on each side, in the Adult all excepts, for as it is continued along the side of the Bladder, & branches off degenerates into a Ligament: so that what was at first a canal from the Pelvis to the Gravel remains & after birth no farther than the Bladder; all between the Bladder & Gravel is then impervious.

The Arteries of
Pectinate Cat

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Underneath Poupart's Ligament the artery is on the outside of the Vein; both together lie in the middle place between the projection of the Os Calcis & the projection of the Anterior part of the Spine of the Os Fibular. from Poupart's Ligament the artery runs down in the straightest possible course to get between the two Condyles behind, & in its way it passes thro' the Tendon of the Triceps Muscle, a little below the Middle of the Thigh; where it lies is the Plantar & is called the Popliteal Artery; just as it passes out of the Ham between the two Attachments of the Soleus it sends off the Anterior Tibial Artery, which passes immediately thro' between the two bones to the fore part of the leg; soon after it has sent off this branch it divides into the two great
Tributaries of the Tibular or Dorsal Artery: the Anterior Tibial runs down the forepart of the leg depressed between the bones, & close to the Tibia, gets to the back of the foot, & then plunges in between the metatarsal bones of the few 1st & 2nd toe. The posterior Tibial runs down behind the Tibia deeply seated between the muscles that make the Tendo Achillis & those that lie immediately close to the bones; it runs behind the inner Ankle & on the inside of the Os Calcis when it divides into the Plantar Arteries of the toes, the one to the inner, the other to the outer side of the Sole of the foot; just above the Ankle it sends off a branch which gets from behind to the forepart of the foot by passing between the Tibiale & Fibulare and anastomoses with the Anterior Tibial; the Tibular Artery runs deeply seated close down behind the Fibulare & passes behind the outer Ankle to the out side of the foot, above the Ankle it sends off a branch forward round the Fibulare, which anastomoses with the Anterior Tibial.
The Anterior & posterior Tibial anastomose together & send branches along the sides of each toe to the very end, as the Radial & Ulnar Arteries do in the Hand

By knowing

The Veins

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By knowing the course of the arteries we pretty well know the course of the veins, but there may be said to be two sets of veins, the one taking the course of the arteries, the other laying quite superficial without any large arteries near them. From considering the veins physiologically we only learn that they return the blood to the heart. Wounds of the veins are not nearly so dangerous as those of the arteries. When a large vein is tied the circulation is continued by others of the communicating branches. The branch of the venal system is surely more numerous & considerable than of the arterial system. At a gun at Manchester cut his large caudal artery about the middle, on account of the bleeding from the abastomosing branches it was necessary to tie it immediately without endeavouring to separate it from the vein, so that these Arteries & the great vein were tied together. The man did well, the blood was carried thro' the body by the anastomosing arteries, and was returned by the anastomosing superficial veins, which became exceedingly turgid & tortuous, and made the appearance of the body very different from the other. The Vena Saphena quite from the foot to the upper part of the thigh was very prominent & winding. The veins (except those of the viscera) have valves, in which they differ from arteries. The phrenic veins in different parts of the body are in no two persons alike. The Vena Cava arises from the Vena Cava Superior & may be said to be the drain of blood from all the containing parts of the chest. It gives off lateral branches according to the intercostal arteries, soon after the Vena Cava Superior divides into the two Subclavians, and as it lies on the right side of the spine the left Subclavian is longest. The great vein from the Thyroid Gland enters the left Subclavian immediately on the middle of the body. Each Subclavian before it passes over the first rib gives off the trunk of the external and internal jugular veins. The external branches commonly attend the external branches of the

Carotid

The Veins

Carotid Artery, and the internal jugular passes into the Thall with
 the internal Cervical, & forms the Veins of the Dura Mater: at the Shoulder
 the Subclavian sends off the Cephalic Vein, which comes out between the Deltoid
 & Pectoral Muscles, and runs down the Arm immediately under the Skin; the
 continuation of the Subclavian goes down the Arm along with the Artery & is called
 the Basilic; at the bend of the Arm the Veins divide by anastomose making two
 principal ones, the Cephalic; the Cephalic Median, the Basilic Median, & the
 continuation of the Basilic is the Ulnar Vein, the Cephalic & Basilic MEDIANS
 unite a little below the bend. The Basilic Median is commonly the first
 turned & superficial for bleeding, & as it lies immediately on the Tarsian
 and Artery, the Surgeon commonly chooses to take the first Superficial one,
 the Cephalic Median, if this cannot be got, then is the Cephalic which fills
 very well & lies superficially, but its Situation is awkward, and being a
 small setting Vein, heavily bleeds the hand. There is no objection to open-
 ing the Ulnar Vein, but the disadvantage of its Situation, it laying too much
 underneath the Arm to be conveniently come at. (When a Vein is opened with
 a blunt Instrument, the Lance first presses all the parts together, and then
 the Plunge makes the Lance go deeper than was intended.) The Veins
 of the Arm divide & subdivide down the fore-Arm, and hand, passing
 from before round the outside of the Ulna, and Radius to the backpart
 of the Arm and Hand. Every artery is commonly attended by two Veins
 The Vena Cava Superior gives off no branches similar to the Celiac, and
 two Gastro-Enteric Veins, but the blood returning from the Stomach, Spleen,
 Pancreas and Intestines is carried by the Vena Porta up into the
 Liver; the Blood is carried from the Liver into the Vena Cava Superior
 by the Vena Cava Hepatica, which enters it just under the Diaphragm

Each

The Veins

Each of the Lower Veins divides into an External, which passes under Poupart's Ligament, and an Internal one, going down into the Pelvis, called the Hypogastric Vein, which is distributed to the internal parts of Generation. just under Poupart's Ligament the Vein sends off the Vena Saphena, which runs along the inside of the Thigh and Leg from the Groin to the Foot, all the way immediately under the Skin; it divides, and Anastomoses on the upper part of the Foot, as the Veins do on the back of the hand; opening any of these Veins in the Foot is called Bleeding in the Vena Saphena — The continuation of the Vein over the Cervix takes the course of the Cervical artery —

The Brain

Lecture 65th

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The whole brain may be said to be that substance from which the powers are produced; it naturally divides itself into two parts; that within the skull called Encephalon is uniform, & the brain-part is situated much lower than the face-part; it is divided into three principal parts, the Cerebrum, Cerebellum & Medulla oblongata from whence the medulla & spinalis originates. The falx or process of the dura mater above divides the cerebrum into two equal hemispheres. The cerebrum projects before at the forehead, & makes the anterior lobe; & as it projects behind, makes the posterior lobe; & it projects laterally on the temporal bone toward the base of the skull, & makes the middle lobe cerebrum. The cerebrum reaches from the forehead to the most projecting part of the hind head above; below it reaches no farther than the transverse ridge, by the raw bone of the temporal bone at the base of the skull; & the raw bone. The cerebellum begins, and lies under, & behind the cerebrum. The internal line opposite to the division between the cerebrum & cerebellum is a very little lower than the transverse ridge on the occipital bone; the posterior part of the falx cerebri projects into two wings transversely, between the posterior lobes cerebris & cerebellum. These are called the tentacles, & so called, they do not meet at their inner edges, & so as to divide the cerebrum & cerebellum asunder from one another, but they are continued only to a certain depth, & leave a middle common part between them called the isthmus.

The dura mater is a tenacious membrane made of two laminae, not to be separated however except just at the sinuses, it is chiefly connected to all the internal surface of the cranium by very minute blood vessels, which pass from one to the other; its inner surface is smooth & protected by its bloods, project on the external surface, and so necessarily lay in cavities in the bone.

Bone, except at the Sutures, & has no connection with the Pia Mater, except at
the Sutures. The Space between them may be considered as a cavity, & a teaspooonful of
Fluid between the two will spread itself half over the Brain, because they lie
naturally in close contact, the principal Artery is a branch from the External
Carotid that enters the Skull just before the Temporal Bone, at the lower anterior
angle of the Parietal Bone; this branch is everywhere thick, & upon every
Branch of an Artery attend two branches of Veins, one on each side of the Artery,
all along the upper edge, of the Fallopian Roots the superior longitudinal
sinus runs, this is made by the splitting of the inner Lamella of the
Dura Mater, which runs down between the Hemispheres, while the external
Lamella going straight leaves a triangular Space, between which is the superi-
or longitudinal sinus. The Dura of the Mater adheres at the Sutures
because the Veins of both enter into them. This Adhesion prevents any Fluid
from getting across the sinus from one side to the other. The sinuses may be
considered as vacant spaces between the two Lamella of the Dura Mater, & are
Veins ex officio. These spaces are triangular, full of offices of Veins, that open
into them. The Superior longitudinal sinus is located behind, the Stream
of blood thro' it runs backwards, the Veins open into it forward so that the two
streams meet, why this is so we don't know; it has bristles going across it made
by small processes of the inner part of the Dura Mater, which are washed over
both sides by the Blood in the sinus, as if there was danger of it being too much
distended. It begins forward at the Crux Ta Galli, it runs backwards under
the Superior Middle part of the Ant. of the Cranium till it gets to the Cerebellum
here it divides into the two lateral sinuses, which run as far as the Tem-
poral Bone between the Cerebellum and Cerebrum, and there from the Jugular
Vein on each side. These three sinuses drain the two membranes, and the
cerebellum

The Brain.

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Posterior part of the Brain of their Venal Blood: the Middle Drap of Brain is drained by a fourth Sinus, the Saccular Sinus, a part of the Arteries, it opens into the cross way between the longitudinal and lateral Sinuses; sometimes to the right, sometimes to the left lateral. Modern Anatomists describe many more Sinuses, at least eight or ten, as the first longitudinal, that runs along the inferior edge of the Falx, the Frontal, the Parietal &c. These are fully Driven in the Dura Mater, that open into the four Sanguinal Sinus, as already described, and we may trace at least a hundred of these in kind.

The Pia Mater gives to the Brain a smooth outward covering, it may be considered as made of two Lamellæ, and the inner one passing deeper between all the convolutions, so that its internal surface is exceedingly distorted. When the Pia Mater is on the Brain, the convolutions are all fixed down to one another, but when that is stripped off, the convolutions are loosed & disunited for some way down, so that the finger may be passed between them for some little depth, for a Space of the Pia Mater comes down between them, & is fixed to the convolutions of the brain. The Vessels of the Brain are continued on to the Dura Mater by Pia Mater, and the Vessels that connect the Pia Mater to the convolutions of the Brain are called by Bayeot, Somentum Cerei; and indeed when the membrane is stripped off, they have that downy appearance. Anatomists have described a third membrane situated between the Dura & Pia Mater, the Sutura Arachnoidea; the appearance of this however is nowhere to be seen, but down by the Medulla Longata. The names which have been given to different parts of the Brain, are ridiculous enough without any regard to their uses, neither indeed are the uses of particular parts known, but it was necessary they should have names, else when we describe particular cases we should not be

understood.

The Brain

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understood. To examine the Contents of the Cranium we saw the Rull thro' circularly, when the upper piece is removed the Dura Mater is seen immediately under this the Pia Mater: the Vessels at the Falx must be broken thro' with the Finger, and the Falx drawn out & cut off at the Corpus Callosum. The two Hemispheres being drawn gently asunder at a certain depth the Corpus Callosum is seen, which is a white Substance of a pretty firm texture; all above it is called the Convolutions of the Brain, these convolutions are to be cut off down to the Corpus Callosum, they are composed of an outer Cortical part of an Ash colour, & an inner Medullary part of a white colour. The inner Medullary is greater than the Cortical, it shrouds off from the Corpus Callosum a form, a Cavity into the middle of each Convolution, where it is covered all round by the external Cortical part, which follows in as near the disposition of the convolution, so that the Pia Mater touches only the Cortical Substance. Both the Cortical & Medullary substance are very tender, the Cortical most so, and they are exceedingly vascular, indeed they appear to be a composition of Vessels. The functions of the Brain, the best Physiologists are agreed upon at all understand from any thing we see of its substance. Some French Physiologists have lately thought the Corpus Callosum to be the immediate seat of the Mind & Soul, from observing that injuries inflicted here are particularly suddenly fatal in their effects. The next parts to be examined are the Ventricles of the Brain, which are two oblong cavities, one in each Hemisphere lying contiguous & only separated by an exceedingly fine Membrane called the Septum Pellucidum. They are situated immediately under the Corpus Callosum, & their general situation is forwards & backwards. Each Ventricle adapts itself to the Medullary Substance of the Cerebrum, so it is best to consider each as a cavity sending out three recesses; first the Anterior recess which makes a cavity in the middle of

the Anterior

The Brain

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The Anterior Lobe lying a second into the posterior Lobe Cerebri, & a third winding round into the Middle Lobe Cerebri. Anatomists mention an Anterior & post. ventr. Cerebri; by the posterior they mean the Middle process, which Hunter calls the posterior process, they call the Aditus mandibularis. Near the outer side of each Ventricle appears an ab. colored long body narrow forward, & growing broader as it goes backward, called the corpora striata, between these, & a little behind are situated the Thalami nervorum opticorum, white bodies one in each Ventricle; & between these appear the Plerus Choroides at the back of the vessels. These three, the corpora striata, the Thalami nervorum opticorum, & the Plerus Choroides lie in each Ventricle; at the bottom of the Ventricles under the epidurum, pia mater lies the fornix, a white substance; its Post lies forward, & its two arms run backward & outward with the striae choroides, into the middle process of the ventricles.

The Brain

Lecture 66th

So go on with the Dissection of the Brain. The Two posterior lobes Cerebri, being cut out we see the lateral Processes of the Dura Mater enclosing the Cerebellum. The middle Anterior part of the Cerebellum is highest, runs up to a point where it joins the Cerebrum, this part is called the Sutures of the Brain: upon this I observe immediately in the Center of the Brain is placed the Pineal Gland; from it being very gross, & situated so Centrally, Dr. Cudler concluded that it was the immediate evidence of the Soul. The Old Anatomists thought that the Sornies made communication to the third Ventricle, but it only lies over; for if we remove the Sornies, we do not thereby expose the Ventricles; under the Root of the Sornies, & Thalamus Reversum Opticum, the two lateral processes of the Ventricles communicate with one another, so that we never find one Ventricle tenanted with a fluid, & the other not. The Posterior Infundibulum is at the anterior Extremity of the Thalamus Reversum Opticum, just under the Root of the Sornies, & is called the Anterior hole. The Posterior hole is between the posterior extremities of the Thalamis, the Anterior is called Arus, The posterior Arus. The Thalamus Reversum Opticum where they lie in the longitudinal fissure, but a little way down, they are closely united: by tearing this thin carnal Union, we expose a little longitudinal fissure Centrally, called the third Ventricle lying backward & downward: into its anterior end, the Anterior hole leads from above; the posterior hole leads into the posterior end; when the Anterior hole is there is a communication between the two lateral Ventricles, and these two with the third, so that all three communicate with the Infundibulum by means of the Anterior hole. The fourth Ventricle lies under the Anterior hole backward than the Pineal Gland between the Cerebellum & medulla Oblongata; it communicates with the third Ventricle by the Aqueduct Thalamus from the posterior end of the third Ventricle into the anterior end of the fourth; under the Pineal Gland its posterior end is called Calamus Scriptorius. The Irregularities on the surface of the Cerebellum are called the Lamella, as those on the Cerebrum are called Convolution.

The Cerebellum

The Brain

The Cerebellum is covered by the Dura Mater, & these two membranes are united together only at the lines, as on the Cerebrum at the lower part of the Medulla Oblongata; The Pia Mater splits into two Lamella, the inner one contains the vessels, & remains united to the adjacent surface of these parts; the outer Lamella lies loosely on the inner between it & the Dura Mater, and makes the Tunicia Arachnoidea as it is called without a vessel to be seen in it. The Dura Mater is continued from the Medulla Oblongata to the spinal marrow, & makes a kind of Sheath for it. Between the two Cervical Arteries lies the Infundibulum. The upper part of the Medulla Oblongata is thick & called the Pons Varolii. All the Medulla Oblongata is white, & consists of Medullary substance, except a little ash-colour in the middle. By making a vertical incision thro' the Cerebellum from the middle of the Medulla Oblongata, we bring out the Arbor Vitæ, which is the effect of this particular Incision. It shew's the disposition of the Medullary substance within, & the Cerebellum without, the Medullary shading from the Medulla Oblongata as its border. When the Medulla Oblongata sends off the Medullary substance of the Cerebellum, it is called Pons. The posterior parts are two pair of little eminences on the Medulla Oblongata; below them are the Corpora Pyramidalia, & Corpora Obovata. The Infundibulum was supposed to carry down the water of the Brain into the Glandula Pituitaria, which from thence by some means or other get into the blood, but the Infundibulum depends immediately over the Glandula Pituitaria, & it does not go into it. The Glandula Pituitaria is a firm oval body.

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The Eye

Lecture 6th

The Eye brows serve principally to defend the Eyes from too much Light; whence we see that People, who have weak Eyes when they walk out in a clear light, commonly contract their Eye brows. The Eye lids serve as Incurable curtains to veil the Eyes occasionally; (the Other Lenses have no Appendages to prevent their being affected at all Times.) In easily opening & shutting the Eye, the upper Lid only seems to move; the under one moves along with it when we shut the Eye forcibly. The Elevation of the upper Lid is performed by the Levator Palpebrae Superioris, which arises from the upper side of the Orbit; it lies at the bottom of the Orbit, as is spent in the Lid. The Eye lids are strengthened in the middle by a Cartilage or Gristle called the Tarsus, or Eyelid Cartilage. Mr John Hunter is of Opinion that it is entirely glandular. It is true it is not much harder than the glandular substance of the Female Breast. The Ducts or Ducts of these Glands may be seen with a Glass standing in a Row just under the edge of the Eyelid. The Mucus these Glands secrete is a defense to the Tendons in the edge of the Eye Lids, against their being hurt by friction from their frequent closing upon each other. The use of the Eye lashes is to defend the Eyes from any Thing that might otherwise get into them. Therefore when Sand is blown up by the wind, we almost shut our Eyes, & leave them open only just sufficiently to see our way. Eyes that have lost their Lashes become weak from the frequency of having hard bodies thrown into them. The Inner Membrane of the upper lid is called the Tarsia Conjunctiva, which is reflected over the Tarsia Albuginea, & is very thin, so that the Whiteness of that Coat is seen thro it. The Angle of Reflexion between the two is perpetually changing, as the Eye, or Eye Lid move; when it covers the Ball it is smooth & without Viscosity.

when it

The Eye.

when it comes the inside of the Eye lid it is very vascular & villous & moist, that is, any thing getting into the eye as a bit of dust, will stick generally on the inside of the Upper Eye lid, for if it lodges upon the Ball, that eye lid immediately comes down, & being rougher than the Ball, it carries the irritating body along with it, It appears to be the inside of the Eye lid that is painted more than the Ball, a small bit of aint on the end of a Probe will commonly take it off; when the Tarsus is thickened, it is pushed outwards, & by that means insects the Eye lids. The Tendon of the orbicularis muscle, that runs from the inner Canthus to the bone of the nose is call'd the internal ligament of the Eye lid; from the outer angle there is a band of firm cellular membrane which fixes it to the bone of the Orbit; this call'd the external ligament. The Glandula lacrymalis has only of late been known to be the source of the Tears, the old anatomists call'd it the glandula somnolentia, the unknown gland, it lies in a cavity within the bone of the Orbit just over the outer Canthus, & has a concave surface adapted to the concavity of the Eye ball; it lies as running obliquely down, & open thro' the inner membrane of the upper Eye lid, near to the outer Canthus: there are commonly two or three large enough to admit the end of a small briar, the Tears then are thrown in between the upper & the Eye lid at the outer Canthus, they are carried out from between them at the inner Canthus, so that they wash the Ball all over. The lacrymal gland is but small, yet it occasionally secretes a great quantity of Tears equally from affection of the mind, or irritation of this organ. The lacrymula lacrymalis fills up the inner angle, & a little way from it on the edge of the Eye lids are two little projecting parts, one on each lid, upon these is seen the small orifices of the lacrymula lacrymalis. When the Eye lids are closed the orifices lie together, & the puncta are parallel. They terminate in the sacculus lacrymalis in such a manner that it is difficult to say whether by one or by two orifices, they open just as

The Eye

just so they are uniting to make the figure of the Letter Y without the stem: the upper end of the stem lies under the tendon of the orbicularis muscle just without a ridge of the bone, and lodged in a small cavity of the bone. In the operation of opening the eye, this ridge should be left so, and the point of the knife carried down to the bone within the ridge: in doing this there is no occasion for cutting the tendon of the orbicularis, and if we cut thro' this tendon, we shall cut thro' both tendons, which will occasion a perpetual fistula sacculalis by obstructing the passage for the tears into the nose. The eye ball is moved upward downward, inward & outward by the four recti muscles, which are fixed at the edge of the hole at the bottom of the orbit around the optic nerve. Their other tendinitis are fixed by tendons to the ball, that are lost in the white coat of the eye. It is supposed that all these muscles acting together will press the ball back against the fat, parts behind, and perhaps also alter the figure of the eye a little to answer some particular purpose in vision. The obliquus inferior is fixed to the tendon of the cibit, a little distance from the sacculus sacculalis, & is fixed to the ball a little forward without the optic nerve. This is antagonized by the obliquus superior and trochlearis from the tendon passing thro' the trochlear at the inner of superior part of the orbit joint with the tendon. It is fixed to the side of the hole at the bottom of the orbit, goes thro' the pulley, then turns back again, & is fixed to the superior & outer part of the ball.

The Eye

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The Eye is as well understood as any part of the body: the figure of the Ball is spherical, but at the Cornea it projects more than the rest, and on this side where the four Recti Muscles are fixed, it is a little flattened. The Optic Nerve is inserted into its posterior part, not exactly in the middle Conical part of Axis, but at least in the World to the inside. The Oblique incision is very great in some I have dredged. The Tunicæ Conjunctivæ do not appear to be continued across the Cornea, at least it does not lay loose there, as on the other part of the Eye, but Dr. Hales thinks it does, says it is plainly to be seen in the Scleræ; Ophthalmies seem to prove this to be the case. Among the coats of the Eye, Anatomists have described the Tunicæ Adnata, but there dont appear to be any such coat. The first proper coat of the Eye is thick, & contains the other parts as in a Box, its posterior part, and sides are white and Tendinous, its forepart is bright as by layer the bright part is called the Cornea. Transparency: the white Tendinous part, the Cornea, & spaces by others the opaque part is called the Scleræ, and the bright part the Cornea & when the Cornea is soaked in Water, it becomes thick and opaque. The part where the Scleræ & Cornea meet, we will for the present call the Boundary. Immediately within the Scleræ is a thin vascular membrane the Choroides. This goes all round, except that at its Anterior part it has a hole called the Pupil, from the Boundary to when it forms the Pupil it is called the Iris. The Iris is perfectly loose, but the Choroides is connected to the Scleræ by any fine Vessels, passing from one into the other. It is of a darker colour behind than before, it approaches towards the Boundary, for here it becomes almost white, it has two curving arteries on it, they branch in a Conical manner, & are therefore called by some, Vasa Vorticosa: It may be separated into two Lamellæ, the inner of

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the inner of which was improperly called by Ruysch *Inombrana*, or *Tunica Ruyschiana*. The Iris differs in colour in different bodies; it has two Circles on it call'd the *Zones*, one near the Boundary, the other at its inner edge, it is very thin, but by injection, appears to be *Vascular*. The *Processus Ciliae* is a Circle of little Processes at the Boundary, which make a Ring all round the *Cristalline humour*. They are particularly large in an *ox's eye*; in the human Eye they are but small when the Eye is minutely injected, the *choroid Coat* seems to be nothing but a *Plaeus* of *veins*; This Coat is discontinued opposite to the insertion of the *Optic nerve*, or rather it makes a hole for the *Arteria* of the *Eye*. In this Spot at the bottom of the Eye is *blond*, and *rays* coming from any Object, and falling here will produce no image; For if three Cards are stuck upon a Wall, the Eye being placed so that the *rays* coming from the *Middle* one shall fall on this Spot, the *outside* ones will be seen, and the *Middle* one not; the other Eye remaining shut; The *Read Coat* of the Eye is the *Inombrana* *iris* or *riguum* *Pigmentum*; it is an exceeding tender Membrane, is extended with the *choroid Coat*, Iris. It is thickest, darkest, and strongest just under the Iris; its Use is evidently to prevent any light passing thro' the Iris into the Eye; it is supposed to be of a darker colour, in proportion as the hair of the animal is darker. Within side of all is the *Retina Tunica*, which is an expansion of the *Optic nerve*; This the *Center* of the *Optic nerve* passes an *Artery* which is expand'd on the *Retina*, and in the *Fadus* it may be traced going thro' the *Cristalline humour*. We cannot trace the *Retina* farther than near the Boundary, it always is lost before it quite reaches the *Cristalline humour*, if it is continued before the *Cristalline humour*, it becomes transparent or *clear*; inject the Eye of a *Fetus* not more than *five* or *six* *months* *old*, we find

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we find there is no Pupil to be seen, but a Membrane going quite across, called the Membrana pupillaris very vascular. Dr. Vardo was the first Discoverer of it. In a child born at the full time, we observe any appearance of this Membrane, what becomes of it we dont know. Dr. Hunter has an Idea, that it afterwards forms the Capsula of the Crystalline Humour. The names Iris, Uvea, & Choroides have been much confounded by different Authors; it is plain that the Greeks understood by Uvea what we call the Iris, & by Choroides the part we have called the Boundary. The Humours of the Eye are three, the Crystalline in the Middle, the aqueous before it, & the vitreous behind it. If by Humours is meant a fluid, then there is but one Humour, the Aqueous; the other two are of a solid consistence of which the Crystalline is by much the firmest. The Crystalline is placed just behind the Iris, but no way connected with it; it is convex before & behind, but it is more so behind; (when put into Spirit of Wine it becomes firm & opaque of a white colour like the white of an Egg hardened by boiling.) This with the Ciliary Processes makes a compleat partition between the Aqueous and Vitreous Humours. The aqueous Humour processes the two Chambers of the Eye. By the anterior Chamber is meant the Space between the Cornea & Iris, & by the posterior Chamber the Space between the Iris & the partition made by the Crystalline Humour & the Ciliary Processes. All the space behind the Partition is filled up by the Vitreous Humour. The middle anterior part of it receives the posterior Convex part of the Crystalline Humour; around the Edge of the Crystalline, the Membrana iridea is laid, which has narrow indented borders by the Ciliary Processes. All the Humours in a sound Eye, & in a young one especially, are perfectly transparent, it is very plain that the Crystalline

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Crystalline humor a thin Film to the contiguous Surface of the Vitreous
and that too by means of its Capsula, for if the Capsula be punctured it
will readily separate, & leave its Capsula upon the Vitreous. The Capsula is
vascular & may be injected. The Crystalline humor has different degrees of
firmness in different parts, it is pretty hard towards its outside, but the Middle
or nucleus is very hard & vacuous. No one has yet injected the substance of the
Crystalline humor, many have talked of it, but they seem to have mistaken
what is called the injected Capsula, the injected Crystalline. It has been said that
Albicus injected it, but himself told Dr. Hunter, he never had done it, so
early as the year 1734 he had injected the Membrana Propria, and showed a
Preparation of it, Drawing of it to Dr. Hunter. The Vitreous humor is a very
tender jelly in appearance, the greatest part of it is certainly water inclosed in
a fine spongy membrane of a very delicate structure. —

The Eye &c.

Lecture 69th

The Knowledge of Light is a necessary Introduction to the Physiology of the Eye or Luminous bodies are of two kinds, one that emits from itself as the Sun, a Candle &c; another that emits Light only by reflecting that which falls on it from some other body; thus the Moon emits not its own, but Light borrowed from the Sun, and a piece of white paper emits Light reflected which fell on it from a Candle. Every part of a Luminous body has rays passing from it in all possible parallel directions. Any Ray passing from it is falling obliquely on a Dense or Medium as Water will be refracted, or bent more to the perpendicular direction, by passing thro' that is rarer with refracted, or bent more from the perpendicular direction if it passes obliquely. The rays are supposed to be refracted by the attraction of matter, since the denser the Medium the stronger the attraction; any Ray falling perpendicular on the surface of matter which is very different in Density will not have its direction altered, it will not be refracted in the least, a Ray falling on any surface of a Body that is smooth will be thrown off again or reflected unless that body be a black one, and the angle of incidence will always have the same angle of reflection, that it has with a Line perpendicular to the Plane of the Reflector or Vice Versa. The Eye is in fact a Camera Obscura, and the Focus is at its bottom, for if we carefully dissect off the Coat at the bottom of an Eye so as not to distract the Humours, or then lay a piece of transparent bladder in their place, we shall see distinctly the picture of the opposite Objects shining thro' the bladder. The Catechalline Humour is the principal Refractor that makes the picture at the bottom of the Eye, that is the point to which it refracts, and converges them. All parts of the Catechalline Humour dont seem to refract equally, but from those rays that pass thro'

passes through its center, then those that are within its circumference. The Retina appears plainly to be a continuation of the Optic Nerve, and that is the organ of Vision, and not the Choroid, which is unfit for this purpose; and it is covered within by the Black Membrane. Between the Retina & Crystalline Humour there is a space that is to be filled up, & this is done by the Vitreous Humour, which refracting a little then is a double refraction. The Pupil moderates the quantity of light by its contraction, and dilates that a greater quantity may be admitted into the Eye when we look at very distant Objects. This seems to be at least one use of the Iris, and that it might perform its motion properly it plays in an Open Space, which is filled up by a transparent Water. The use of the Nigrom Pigmendum is to absolutely prevent any Rays passing into the Eye, but such as pass through the Crystalline. This black Membrane is laid all round within the Bulb of the Eye for the same reason that a Camera Obscura is painted black within. The use of the Tarsica Choroider is certainly to receive the Eye in the external Coat the Scleroteca forms the Box or Walls of this tender Organization; it being transparent on the forepart is undoubtably to admit the light to the bottom of the Eye, & the transparent part being continued over the Iris allows those very oblique Rays that fall thereon to be reflected by that means Objects on each side are seen, but not so distinctly at those directly opposite. The Scleroteca is Tendinous, because Nature could not have given a stronger Coat than a Tendon, & Tendon being inelastic, & the Humours incomprehensible; pressure on the Eye will not make it deviate from its Spherical figure. The great use of having two Eyes is, that we may judge of distances. We judge of distances by the Angle made by the axis of our two Eyes inclining toward one another; when the Eyes are directed

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directed to a near Object, the Angle is greater, when to a distant Object the angle is less: when we look at very distant Objects, the axes are nearly parallel. When if we shut one Eye we can not see so as to judge of distance by the other, because a single Axis can make no Angle of itself. The Refracting Power of an old Eye is weak, and therefore an old man holds the Object at a distance, as in a great light to make the Rays come to the Eye as parallel as possible, that they may not diverge too much before they get to the Retina, so that he wears Convex Spectacles to make the Rays converge. People in this state are long-sighted, and cannot see an Object near them well. A Peubliard or Short-sighted man has the Rays too much refracted, or converging, and therefore he uses concave Spectacles to diverge the Rays: if he looks at a Distant Object the Rays coming nearly parallel are converged too soon, so that the picture is indistinctly marked on the Retina, and therefore he places the Object near him to adapt the Rays to the great Refraction.

It is well known that the Pupil dilates or contracts as we look at distant or near Objects, and D'Herter believes also that the figure of the Ball is altered, and adapted by its Muscles, to different Objects. A Person, who squints habitually, sees single Objects that present themselves; one, who squints on purpose, and not from Habit sees double; and an habitual squinting Person's Eyes when brought right see double: A Child newly born often squints, and feeling gradually that it is an inconvenience learns to direct both Eyes to the same Object; if it is observed that he always employs one particular Eye to look at Object, while the other is moving about for want of direction, the Squinting may be cured by tying up the good Eye till he has got an habit of directing the other properly. Blindness must arise from one of these Causes, first that which prevents the passage of light to the Retina

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the Retina; or that which prevents the Perception of it; this last Cause is called the Eye Darkness. In this Case the Humours and Cornea continue as transparent as ever; but the Iris having no sensible Motion, the Pupil always appears equally large in a strong or weak Light.

The Opacity which excludes Light may be in the Cornea or Humours; if it is in the Cornea, we can readily discern it by the white and muddie Appearance; when only that part of the Cornea is Opaker, which is exactly opposite to the Pupil, we cannot so readily distinguish it by looking directly forward, as sideways; or Ninety ninetenths in an hundred the Opacity is in the Cystalline Humor, being white it makes all the Pupil seem white.

The Mouth & Nose

37 Lecture 70th

We shall examine the Mouth & Nose together. We already know the Cavities of the Nose, & their communications, and we also know a great deal of the Mouth in. As appendages to the Mouth are the Salivary Glands, these are commonly reckoned three part, the principal of which is the Parotid. The Parotid Gland is situated immediately before & below the Mandibular Auditory, it goes as low down as the Basis of the Lower Jaw, & goes away inward behind the Lower Jaw; it is a conglomulated Gland. It has no one great artery of Vein, but receives many little branches from the neighbouring parts, particularly from the Temporal Artery, which runs behind & partly this Gland. The Posterior Diva of the seventh pair of Nerves passes thro' the body of this Gland in its way to be distributed to the face; the Branches of the Buccal Duct anastomose in the Substance of the Gland like the branches of an artery, they unite into one common Trunk, placed within the Substance of the Gland, which comes out at its Anterior part, it finds now a little upward, then a little downward, & crosses the Buccinator Muscle just under the Projection of the Cheek bone, then plating inwards opens into the Mouth nearly opposite to the Third Middle grinding tooth in the Upper Jaw. Sometimes there is a little tube of this Gland that comes down forward on the Jaw, which sends branches into the other Duct; from its Situation the Gland must be moved only by the Motion of the Lower Jaw, as it is observed, that increased Motion on this Gland increases its excretion, we conclude that there is a larger quantity of Saliva poured into the Mouth from this Gland in mastication, or Chewing. Sometimes it happens, that in a Wound of the Cheek, the Duct is cut thro' the Saliva is discharged thro' the Wound, sometimes the Saliva finds its proper Channel, as the external Wound heals up, but it happens likewise, that from the Duct being fairly divided, the two Ends shrinking, do not reunite, that part of it which goes to the Mouth does up the Saliva unconsidertly thru

the external

The Mouth & Nose.

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The external Wound, & a Salivary Fistula remains when the Case is healed, we should by applying sticking plasters &c on the external Wound endeavour to make the Saliva flow in its proper Channel, & order the Patient when he speaks or eats, to put his finger on the external Surface; if this should not succeed, we should make a new passage into the Mouth, & the best way to do this is to make a Sling of Silk by means of an Eyed Bobe sharp at the other End, from the Wound thru the Gums immediately underneath as near as possible to the old Channel into the Mouth, have it in for some time, till it is judged that there is a pretty clear passage made by its becoming callous, then with a saw the Silk & heat up the external Wound. We have been advised in this Case to destroy the Parotid Gland, but this is impossible; for to extirpate it entirely, we must cut very deep down & in so doing we shall cut this the Trunk of the Temporal & external Maxillary Nerves, which would occasion a very dangerous hemorrhage.

There is hardly a possible chance of our destroying every the least bit of the Gland, and so long as any remains there will be a Suctior of Saliva & the Fistula will in spite of all our endeavours continue. Stone discovered the Duct in 1660, & published his Discovery the next year, therefore it is called Ductus Stoneanus. In the cavity between the two Rami of the Angle of the lower Jaw lies the Maxillary Gland, of the figure of the cavity it is contained in. It is sometimes call'd the Submaxillary, & the Duct comes off above the Middle anterior part, passes along the inside of the Sublingual Gland, & opens into the Mouth just by the Frenum lingue over the two Middle Incisor Teeth in the lower Jaw. All the excreted Jakes of the body in some constiutions will form Calculous Concretions, and it is not uncommon for a Stone to be lodged in this Duct, it may be plainly felt & cut out. the Duct is liable to be stopped by Stricture too; from these causes the Saliva may be accumulated & produce

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a humor, which should be discharged by Punction with a lancet, often after-
wards the Saliva will continue to flow thro' the Naso Olfactor in the
Sublingual gland is a long thin gland lying immediately under the
Innenstaane of the Mouth, the Edge toward the face, the other toward the Tongue,
it reaches from the Symphysis of the Lower jaw, where it nearly touches its
Yellow, so far back as the Maxillary Gland. It has ^{one} common excretory Duct,
but a number of small Ducts which open on the Membrane of the Mouth by
many Orifices placed on a Prow. The Maxillary Duct has been known to all
ages. In all Writers down to Haller mention is made of the Maxillary &
Sublingual Ducts. Haller thought that the Maxillary thro' its Ducts into
the Sublingual & a Part of the Sublingual gland sometimes runs into the
Maxillary, but they always remain distinct. There seems to be a difference
between the Maxillary & Sublingual glands. The Substance of the Maxillary
is harder, & its Juice is not so dry as the Sublingual, so that the Sublingual can
rarely be a humor of not a Salivary Gland. The Maxillary Paired Glands
appear to be the real Salivary Glands. Heister describes a soft white gland
near the Throat, & calls it the Throat Gland, he says 't may easily be mistaken for
a piece of Fat, & so there is a piece of Fat there remarkable tender, but no
Glandular appearance. The Paired Maxillary Glands do without doubt
sometimes inflame & suppurate. But in Crotophylaceous Habit, it often
happens that there are Swellings in the place of these Glands, & are called Paired
& Maxillary Swellings, being supposed to be swellings of these Glands.
In these cases it is generally found, that it is not an affection of these Glands,
but of the neighbouring Lymphatic Glands, as appears from dissections.
The Parotids are small Glands situated on the inside of the lower Lip, they enclose
the inside angle, & may be always distinctly felt in the living body. They are
similar to

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similar to the Sublingual & execute a Divulsus. Beside the Parotid, Gracillary & Sublingual there does not appear to be any considerable gland about the Face. The small glands on the inside of the Cheeks are called Buccal & The Asophagus is fixed to the Basis of the Rull by a large Involuted Bag the Pharynx at its posterior part immediately before the Larynx, and visibly it depends from the Basis of the Tongue & runs down behind the harynx & trachea, it has a passage into it from the Mouth, & another from the Nose, between which the two passages the Palatum & Noller, will hang so as to shut up occasionally at our pleasure either the one or the other of them. The last & principal valve, the Epiglottis when we breathe always stands up; when any thing is swallowed the Larynx is drawn up with a jerk under the Tongue's Root, & at the same time the Epiglottis is pressed down by the Swallowing body, so that the opening into the Trachea is covered over, but if we speak at the same time that we swallow, we endeavor to keep the Larynx down, the Aperture being open, Mucus gets into the Trachea & causes coughing to expell it, so then seems to be something more then pressing down. The Epiglottis necessary to shut up the Aperture, we must find of all arise up the Larynx, so that it may prevent itself to the Epiglottis more fairly, & be covered by the Root of the Tongue.

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At the Root of the Yugulotis are two little Cavities, in which we judge, that sometimes a little Morsel of bread is lodged, from the Unconscious, and therefore now & then after swallowing, which we force away by a gentle hawking. Then the Jaws are shut, the Cavity of the Mouth is entirely filled up by the Tongue. The Tongue & parts underneath are drawn down to make a Cavity in the Mouth, to make a Vacuum there in Suction; Any one attending to it will find that we do not suck by making Respiration. Behind the Tongue takes an inclination downward, & makes the Anterior part of the Passage into the Oesophagus.

At the Root or beginning of the Palatum intubis the Osseous of the Subnasal aquæna which opens into the posterior nostril, or upper part of the Pharynx immediately opposite to the postero-side of the Septum Osseum & leads on to the Ear. As Drapier was supposed to be sometimes owing to this Tube being clogged up with Græsæ, it has been recommended in dangerous to syringe the Tube by introducing a pipe bent at the End into it from the Nose, but it is hardly possible to know when we have got the Syringe into it in the living body. It has been supposed that the immediate Organ of Sorel was just so much of the Cavity only of the nose, as lies directly under the Osseous of the Pharynx because it was said that the Olfactory Nerves went no farther; but it is plain that they are spread all down the Nose. There is no doubt of the Organ of Sorel being diffused very where over the inner Surface of the Nose. The Passage of the Nose is very narrow & easily clogged up by Græsæ in a cold, or by the swelling of Crumenis Membrane; the Cavity however is greatly extended by means of the Osseous Tumidæ, & other long Lamellæ. The Tongue naturally divides itself into two parts, the Root which is glandular, & the other part which is Villous; at the Root of the Tongue is a pretty considerable blind hole.

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hol. The Skin of the Tongue has a very long little skin covered over with a cuticular covering just as the Skin of the external parts is. The Skin is known to be the Organ of feeling or touch, but the Skin of the Tongue is the finest Organ of touch in the body. Cesalpinius says, that in his Country Italy, Jewellers will sell a Diamond from any other species of Gem, or Composition by their Tongue, this however seems to be an exaggeration of the fineness of this Organ. The Tongue is also the Organ of Taste, & it is capable of tasting on its upper surface only. It appears that no liquid body can be tasted till it is dissolved in a fluid, as in the Saliva for instance, that it may reach this the porous covering, & come immediately to the nervous surface. For we do not taste a piece of sugar, till we have rubbed it with the Tongue, so as to melt it in the Saliva, & if the exterior covering becomes thickened, any means, as pressure on the Tongue for instance, we do not taste at all. It seems that the upper surface of the Tongue is the Organ of taste alone, & not the Roof of the Mouth, nor the Cheeks, for if we lay any thing upon any part of the Mouth, except the Tongue, we do not taste it, & we can feel with all of them, but to determine what is, & what is not concerned in the sensation of Taste, we must distinguish between Tasting, Irritation, & The Palatum. Malle on each side from the Mouth forms two edges downward, tending towards the cavity of the Mouth, & another towards the Pharynx. These make two ^{arches} on each side of the Malle, an Anterior & a Posterior, in these arches lie the Tongils, & these arches are formed by the Constitutor & the Trauiculum, Palato Pharyngeus muscles. The Ducts of these glands open on their surface by several orifices. These glands are often affected in Venereal Complaints, but from other causes, they often inflame, and swell with very irregular surfaces, & the cavities on their

surface

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Surface will be filled with mucus, so as to appear like an ulcer when viewed from the mouth, & we are often apt in these cases to mistake for an ulcer what is only a collection of mucus. These are Mucous Glands, & when we swallow the Tongue presses against them, & squeezes out their mucus, which forwards its deglutition. As the Tongue is seldom in the lead of balance, whenever it is necessary, there can be no objection to its being extirpated, which is easily done by catching hold of it with a small hook & drawing it out, so that we can use the knife. Offensive Breath may be owing to rotten Teeth, or to animal Substances sticking & putrefying about them, but the worst kind of Offensive Breath is caused by neither of these, tho' the growth of Teeth become so clean yet it continues, & is supposed to be a mark of bad Health, which however is a false Supposition. Its origin is owing to a disorder of the Tongue, for the Cavities if examined are found to contain a putty gum mucus, which being picked out smells very Offensively. It may be remedied by sponging the Tongue every morning then with a piece of sponge fixed at the end of a stick to get at the mucus, if this dont cure it, that part of the gland where the mucus accumulates may be cut out without any detriment to the patient. The Aphthous Cawd found on the inside of the Throat is a concretion of mucus. The Tip of the Tongue is commonly nothing but a concretion of mucus, but sometimes it is a delicate & the Cuticular Covering of the Villous Substance, which tho' rubbed off ever so much will not appear clean as in a healthy state. The Tip of the Tongue is well known. Part of the Tongue may be cut off, & yet the Patient shall speak tolerably well. Mr. Lamb at Newcastle cut a large portion of a Tongue off which was more than the growth could hold, & the Patient, a young woman of speak now with very little

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very little air-holes there. Whether the Larynx between the Thyroid & Lutetoid Cartilages on each side is a small blind bag, call'd the Sacculi, having a mouth made by a Bridge of two Corp. Ribands stretched from the Pomum ad Amnib; backwards, call'd the internal Ligaments. Dr. Travers supposed, that speech was a vibration of these Ligaments, that the one produced a grave, & the other a sharp sound. It has been said that Drowned People are holded by the Oppression into the Larynx being shut, but upon immediate examination after Death it has always been found open. We can always with a sudden catch stop our inspiration. This might be said to be done by the Air from the lungs, when we please, getting into the Sacculi Laryngis, & making a Valve by bringing the internal Ligaments of the right & left side together. But when we examine the passage, it never seems capable of being entirely shut up. So they don't close it off, they may so stop the passage as to be the principal Agents in Coughing. A Bull or a Cow are without them, accordingly we find that they never cough with that smart jerk that we do.

3.

The Throat & Ear &c

Lecture 72

The Thyroid Gland lies in contact with the larynx, Pharynx, Oesophagus, & even Asthma: it is much larger in Women than in Men: its Substance is manifestly cellular by containing a puncture in it. We call it a Gland, but its Use is entirely unknown, there has been no exact Day D^r Hunter found in an Enlargement of this Gland makes the true Bronchitis, which is particularly frequent in Young Men: it always takes its true horse-shoe shape. When it grows very large it feels soft, but D^r Hunter can't say what it contains; when it has enlarged it presses on the Carotid: it receives a strong pulsation from them, which often makes it mortification for an Aneurism; how to distinguish it from one has been shewn already. It has been recommended to extirpate this Gland if enlarged, but this can't be done safely on account of its being so near the Carotid Arteries. M^r Gouth of Nov: 1771 has published a Case in which a Cyst formed in this Gland & adhered to the Trachea, & suffocated the Patient instantly. To a Lady who had this Gland greatly enlarged & very soft D^r Hunter advised a puncture, a bloody Well was discharged, high suppuration soon came on & the Patient to be in great danger, but after a time she perfectly recovered. The Organ of Hearing consists of a number of parts, the external Ear, the Meatus Auditivus, the cavity of the Tympanum, & the Larynx. The upper part of the Ear is called the Helix, opposite to this is the Antihelix, before the Antihelix is a little Eminence called the Tragus, which may be pressed over the Meatus Auditivus, the little Eminence opposite that is called Antitragus. The Substance of the external Ear is a gristle of that firmness, as always to preserve its proper form. In Quadrupeds it is larger than in the human body, & is moved by them, as we conceive, towards the place whence sound comes. There are several muscles described by Anatomists, supposed to move the Helix, Antihelix, & other parts of

The Ear

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parts of this Griselle so as to adapt the external Ear to receive more a large sound; but they hardly deserve the name of Griselles, nor can we perceive any of the motions, that are talked of. From the Windings of the External Ear by an continued cavity concurring in the Meatus, all Physiologists agree that it collects the Sound, & conveys it into the Meatus, if so be may suppose Hearing would be considerably injured by the Loss of the External Ear. The Griselle of the external Ear is continued inward, towards the outer part of the Meatus auditivus. The inner part of it is all bony, at the upper & posterior part of the Meatus is Membranous, & in this part are many little dark colored roundish bodies, supposed to be the glandulae cumenae, but we can perceive nothing ^{green} of them. The width of this Canal is commonly the size of a Goose quill terminated inwardly by the Membrana Sympatrica, as the Membrana Sympatrica is placed obliquely against the Meatus, nearer to the horizontal than to the Vertical position, we cannot determine the exact length of the Meatus, it is much shorter at top than at bottom. The Canal goes inwardly forwards with a gentle winding in the Meatus, leads into a cavity called the Tympanum, divide this from the Meatus by the Membrane Sympatrica. It has been common to call the Membrane, the Tympanum, as if the partment stretched over the head was the only part of a Drum, but it is better to call the cavity the Dran, that is the Tympanum, & the other, the Membrane of the Tympanum. The Membrane seems to be a little more vertical in an Adult, than in a young Subject. The outer side of the Membrana Sympatrica is hollowed like a Tunnel: the upper part of the handle of the Malleus is inserted into the Center of the inner side, & pulls it inwards, & looking upon the outside of the Malleus, appears this. As there is a Membrane, which covers the Pupil of the Eye in a Fiducy, so otherwise the Ear has a Membrane spread over the outside of the Membrane.

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membrana Tympani; so fine as to appear like mus: how this disappears by the time of Birth is not known: Naturally the Membrana Tympani is imperforate, tho' some people have said it is perforated, and as a proof of its being so we are told of People discharging the fumes of Tobacco from the Mouth out at the Ear by the Tuba auditiva, which opens into the Ear, behind the Membrana Tympani. When this is the Case, which is much more uncommon than it is generally imagined to be, the hole is certainly the Effect of some disease. — Discharge of matter from the inside of the Ear is very common; & the Paroxysm is a very frequent complaint, therefore from inflammation and suppuration we may easily account for this unnatural appearance. — The Cavity of the Tympanum is oblong, of considerable extent from before to behind, very narrow & conical, proceeding the inside of the Pars Petrosa of the Temporal bone, it leads forward into the Nose by the Eustachian tube (a bony ring on the edge of the Temporal bone marks the place where the Membrana Tympani is spread). The inside of the Irregular Recess of the Temporal bone is a compages of little bony Cells, that communicate all with one another, and with the cavity of the Tympanum. The Osseolae are all placed in the cavity of the Tympanum immediately behind the Membrane, commonly & sometimes four in number, Malleus, Stapes, Incus, & Os Osseolae, but the last bone is only a process of the Incus, so that in reality there are but three bones. The Malleus is bent at the middle between the head, and handle, where it has two processes, one a long & sharp one, and a short blunt one, the head lies upward & inward, lodged in a concavity of the large end of the Incus, it resembles Hercules' Club much more than a Hammer.

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an Hammer, yet is fixed to the inside of the edge of the Membrana Tympani
by the blood vessels. So the smaller end of the Hammer is fixed to the Apex of the
Stapes. The Stapes exactly resembles a Stirrup, only that one side bendeth
a little more than the other. These bones make a Chain quite across the
cavity from the Membrana to the Sphynx. The Basis of the Stapes standeth upon
the Bone of the Osseous, the passage into the Sphynx, hence it has been said
that sound striking upon the Membrana Tympani is communicated to the
chain of bones, & that their vibration gives the sensation of hearing to the
auditory nerves. It is supposed that we adapt the cavity of the ear to
the quantity, & perhaps quality of sounds, as we do the eye to light.
Some have described the motions of the Osseous, but it is better to say only
that they are moveable.

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The Ear

Section 73

Between the Membranous Malleus, & the long process of the Incus, runs a small filament of a nerve, & because it runs across the Membranous Sympathetic in the same manner as the Chord does across the placenta of a foetus, it is called the Chorda Sympathetic. The labyrinth lies in that part of the Sacrum Posticum that is immediately within the cavity of the Sympathetic: its middle part is dangerous & called Vestibulum, its posterior end contains three semicircular canals, the anterior end is called the Cochlea from its resemblance to a Snail's Shell; compare it closely upon the Vestibulum lies the Semicircular Canal of Semicircular Posterior. The Cochlea has a septum, that divides the middle of the space, so that it contains two spiral cavities, which are called the Superior & Inferior Scler, communicating at the apex of the Cochlea, but Hooke never could perceive any thing like a communication, for tho' he poured quick-silver into the one, it did not come out at the other. All these cavities are lined with a membrane that is very vascular. The nature of sound, & the manner in which it is conveyed, is now defined not being nearly so well understood as the nature of vision, we consequently know less of the use of the different parts of the ear than we do of the eye. Every body supposes that the External Ear, Meatus, & cavity of the Sympathetic, the Membranous Sympathetic, and part of the labyrinth are only preparatory to the more internal parts, to collect sound, & convey it to the immediate organ of hearing. The External Ear, and meatus undoubtedly serve as a funnel to convey the sound, as a great number of rays of light brought to a point on the Retina produce a strong sense of light, so a great number of rays of sound will produce a proportional effect on the auditory nerves. The firing of a cannon often makes those

The Ear

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Those few are deaf whose business it is to be close to them at that time, and it is said that after proving the Cannon, or any violent firing, their Ears have been known to bleed, very commonly there is a small artery running along the Sympathum, which perhaps is ruptured along with the Sympathum in this Case. Some have supposed the Septum of the Scale of the Cochlea to be the immediate Organ of hearing. At its beginning it is broad, and grows narrower, and narrower as it advances to the Apex, therefore they say that the Nervous Chords are stretched across it, which decrease in length, as the Septum decreases in breadth; that the Chords are made to vibrate, will produce a greater or less vibration of sound in proportion as a longer, or a shorter one is made to vibrate, in the same manner as the String of a Violin is made to vibrate, which is in Union with the sound produced by the vibration of a String of another Violin. Mr John Hunter thinks that the three Semicircular Canals are the immediate Organs of hearing, for he finds that in Comparative Anatomy, these parts are almost always present, whereas several of the others are frequently wanting. The Diseases of the Ear are but little known, as opacity in the Eye, insensibility of the optic nerve are the cause of blindness, so in the Ear there is a deafness similar to the Gutta Serena, that is, from affection of the nerve, for hearing will vary according to the nerves of the Body in general being weak or stronger. There is deafness too similar to opacity in the Eye, something elongating up the passage, preventing sound from passing properly to the immediate Organ of hearing. When the deafness is not nervous, we can do nothing for it, if the cause is more internal than the treatise Auditio. If the treatise is stopped up by Wax, that may be washed away by Syringing.

Syringing the Ear, the Cotton or Wool put into the Ear occasions and increases this complaint, for little loose pieces are left in, and have the Wax greatly accumulated on them. A Musician was cured of deafness by syringing his ears, & immediately after the plugs of wax came out, and for some length of time after his Hearing was so acute, that the common sound of any one conversing was too powerful, and gave him pain, but this soon off again: usually. There frequently are Abscesses in the Ear, and we see the Disease:ula Auditus concord sometimes along with the Matter, not withstanding which the Patient seems to hear tolerably well. A Person might feel a vibration of the Air by any part of the Surface of his body, without having anything like an Ear to collect Sound, so also a man with a Gall Sore, is sensible of the light of the Sun when his Eye is turned toward it, not from a perception of light, but from the Warmth he feels upon his Eye.

Chirurgical Operations

Introduction, Lecture, 7th

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There is no saying where Surgery had its beginning: there have been found no People without it, therefore it may be considered as coequal with mankind. Practitioners have much taught a cure for many disorders and Chirurgical means must have arisen from the observation of experience of what happened from the intercourses of any one visiting to afford relief & assistance. It is an undetermined question, whether Physicians or whether Surgeons are first, probably the first man that had an accident was the first Surgeon, to himself too. Others afterwards meeting with Accidents would apply to him as the most skilful Person to help them. He had helped himself, not choosing to rely on their own judgment, now there is somebody to apply to, as he did when he had nobody to apply to that knew more of the matter than himself. The putting out of Arrows, & pulling off dead parts from the body was undoubtedly one part of Surgery early in Practice. Any one who took care of a wound then would naturally consider every thing relative to the Case, therefore he would deal first with food & if it had been observed that opening the body had been useful, some purging herb for Medicine. So that Physicians & Surgeons were generally both united in one man in all Countries. It was so among the Greeks who are the oldest Practitioners we know of. We commonly now divide the Profession into three parts, the Physician, the Surgeon, & the Apothecary. Celsus gives us the method of curing diseases under three heads, by Diet, by Medicine, & by Manual Operation, & thinks that the last is the most ancient of the three. He mentions the names of several Authors, who professed to write on the last branch alone, particularly Greeks of Alexandria, whose works are lost to us, at this time this branch was divided from the rest. From the nature of the thing indeed it must have necessarily been divided, for all men are not of that firmness of mind, and

Decency

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Dexterity of Hand so acquire in the Office of a Surgeon, to work properly upon the most precious Objects without being affected too much at their distress: And a Man who by some lucky Accident had gained the reputation of a good Surgeon, would be so frequently applied to in similar Matters, that he would find Employment enough in Surgery alone, & would not want thing else. This might be done in a populous place, where the number of Inhabitants was sufficient to afford him business in one branch alone, by which he might get a comfortable Maintenance. It was a question particularly at the time of Dr. Head, & others of his Contemporaries, who were great advocates of Greek learning, whether the Moderns had improved Surgery in any thing. It was then given in the Negatives on the side of the Ancient, but now no one with holds the Palms from the Moderns so justly, due to them.

It is commonly said that Surgery consists of five parts, therefore called the Pentateuch of Surgery, thus Wounds, Fractures, Ulcers, Fistulæs and Dislocations. These with the Operative part take in the whole. It is however more proper to say it consists of four parts, viz Union, Division, Subtraction, & Addition. The Order that is commonly followed in treating of Chirurgical Operations is to begin at the Head, then go down to the Throat, and take the Extremities the last, but we shall deviate from this Rule in B. If you meditate upon an Operation especially if it be one of consequence, we should consider the following Maxims —

1. Be sure of the Nature of the Disease — — —
2. Will the Disease be removed more tolerable by the Operation —
3. Will the Habit admit of the Risk of Life incurred by the Operation
4. Is there any Accident likely to happen, which might be imputed to the Operation, and thereby burst its reputation? — — —

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- 1 For we must accommodate ourselves to the habit of body & mind.
- 2 Is it better to do the Operation now, or at another time?
- 3 Will it be better to do the Operation, or let it alone, from considering the chance of doing well if it is, and if it is not performed? Better to leave a doubtful Case to Nature.
- 4 Indoctrain to persuade a Patient into an approbation of the Operation.
- 5 Let every Operation be done in as simple a manner as possible.
- 6 Take care to have very good Instruments, and enough of them in case of an accident.
- 7 Adapt the method of doing the operation to the particular case, and go thro' the operation first of all in the imagination.
- 8 Keep all formidable Preparations for the operation from the Patient.

Chas. L. S. 1742

Sutures

Lecture 75th

Divided part will shrink and the two wounded edges wills
secede, & there will be a cavity. This cavity will be filled by a Process
of Nature, by granulation, & when filled up the whole will be cicat-
rized over in two ways, the old skin is drawn out round it from the edge
of the wound, & a new skin covers the center; The new skin is very small
in proportion to the wound, its surface is not grained like as the
Skin is, and is of a different texture. We observe that a round wound
will not heal so well as an oblong one, because the skin when drawn
to a narrow center don't lie at Ease, it will heal more readily if the edge
of the skin is notched & made uneven, old sores will not heal, or
if they do heal they will break out again, for the long continued
inflammation has so united all the fibers of the cellular membrane
that they are no longer loose, so that the skin is bound down all
round, & cannot be drawn over the sore to cicatrize it. This seems
to be the reason why a good quantity of skin being left, when a
large wound is made in some operations is of service old sores
are troublesome too from their having become habitual.

Without waiting for this tedious Process Surgeons have devised
the adhesion of the lips of the wound together so that they may
unite by granulation. This is done by Bandage or by Sutures.
But before we attempt this, we must consider whether the wound
is proper, whether it contains any extraneous body, and whether
it is contained so that suppuration may ensue. We have
been advised not to suture a poisoned wound. In this country
however

Sutures

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however we have hardly any such thing as a Poisoned Wound. When a Wound is poisoned, the ^{lymphatic} vessels generally inflame and mark the Skin with lines that shew their very course. A Boy cut his thumb with a knife, the Wound festered, the whole hand & arm inflamed, and lines ran from the finger up to his Arm. Post, and he was attacked with St. Vitus Dance, and a Mixture of Hemiplegia. From the circumstance of these Lines, Dr. Hunter concludes that the knife had been poisoned by some means or other. The Bite of a Mad Dog is a poisoned wound. Dr. Mead's Lixisivium does nothing in this Case. The only medicine that seems to be of any service is Hills. It is not certain that the Scabathing does any good. The best way is to cut out the bitter part immediately, even take off a finger or two, and if it is a part that will not admit safety of being cut out, we should cauterise as deep as we can with Saltpeter.

Transverse Wounds at the joints & bending parts require only a particular position of the parts, and keeping right by Bandages to bring the lips together so as to unit in. In Superficial Oblique wounds the dry Suture with proper bandage, is all that is necessary. In Superficial Longitudinal Wounds require only the united bandages. In deep Wounds either transverse or oblique stitching is necessary. The Stitches should be taken about the same distance from the lips as the wound is deep, the Wound should be stitched up bleeding, and the edges only just brought simply into contact. Sutures hardly ever are useful; they who approve of them say, that they make the Part sup, but this is wrong; for as

soon as

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soon as the Wound has supplicated, the Skin will be drawn together naturally, and only a line of cicatrix left when all is healed, supposing that we have left the Wound alone to itself. Wounds of the Tendons were supposed to be very dangerous especially if partially divided. Tendons out of Torn Wounds require to be stitched when the Tendo Actitellis was cut this or sutured, it was a common thing to bring the divided Tendons together by a Suture, so in other Tendons, but they only require to be brought as much into Contact as possible, putting the Limb into a favourable position, so that Surgeons no longer use the Suture here. It was found when great Symptoms of Inflammation came on, that it was necessary to take out the Sutcher, nevertheless the divided Tendon united.

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Dropsy

of

LECTURE '76

Dropsy is of two kinds either local or universal, both are the effects of
Chirurgical means. In Anasarca the Scarifications should be small,
either upon the small of the leg or on the foot; a few punctures will
discharge a great deal of water. It has been said that small wounds will
heal up soon, and if so, new ones may be made without giving much
pain to a cold Tropical leg. Small incisions are not so apt to inflame
as large ones, & when the incisions are inflamed, the water ceases to flow,
when large incisions likewise are made, the limb is apt to modify, but
when small ones are made, hardly ever in Blisters have been used to take
off Anasarca's Swellings, but from these the water don't continue to run,
in such quantity, as from punctures; tho' the Skin stretched by the water
is very porous, yet it soon inflames, & is hardened so that the water does
not pass thro' it. The ascites may readily be distinguished by the
undulations. The carrying off the water of an Anasarca will not take off
the ascites. almost all we do for the cure of Dropsy by Medicine is to
little purpose, unless in young & very good habit. Strong Purges are
particularly hurtfull. Sometimes Dropsies cure themselves without
our being able to assign any apparent cause; Purging, sweating & increased
secretions of urine break out naturally, the swellings subside
and the patient gets perfectly well. we have nothing that will make
the abating Vesols do their office more briskly, as our Binger, Dierudis &c, only
increase the weakness and consequently the Tropical Complaints.

Dr. Hunter related a case of a gentlewoman who was labouring under
a Dropsy, & she was cured of it in a very singular manner in Scotland where this lady lived, it was a custom to have the Sacrament
administered

Administered once a year in every Parish, & she being a very religious woman, was desirous of receiving it in the adjoining Parishes as well as in her own, for which purpose ill as she was, she sat often horseback behind her husband, as they were riding along on the top of a smooth but rather hastily declining descent, a Coney of Partridges flew up & frightened the horse, upon which he started & she was immediately thrown & kept rolling over & over from the top of the precipice to the bottom, & when the Elvan came to her she was quite insensible, as soon however as he was able to get her assistance, they lifted her up & she gradually came to her senses, but there was such a amazing quantity of water flowed from her with her urine, that before she reached home, she was almost as small again as when she sat out.

For about the discharge continued till she was perfectly cured or Dr. Ross had been long labouring under an Aescites, & was at last so much reduced to his general health as much impaired that his Stomach rejected every thing that was thrown into it, except a Teacupfull of Chocolate which he used to take 3 times a day; one day he found him self very sick after taking his Chocolate as usual, & was quickly frightened thinking now that nothing would stay on his Stomach, that consequently he must die. His Stomach increased till he vomited & was surprised to see that he brought up a large quantity of water besides the Chocolate he had just drunk. he could not imagine how this could be, for he had taken nothing for several days, but his Chocolate; In a few hours after he felt an uncommon rolling & in his bowels, & then had two or three purging stools successively which brought away a great quantity of water; he now sent for Dr. Hunter, who advised him, as this appear'd to be an effort of nature to cure his complaint, to assist her by some gentle purgative. He accordingly took some Tincture of Rhubarb by the apothecary of which

Dropsey

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of which he got perfectly recovered, & lived two years afterwards tho' he was an old man, & had been long very infirm previous to this disease — we must be particularly carefull that we do not precipitately determine on Tapping in women, for they may be with Childbed disease ever, The method of puncturing the Belly among the old Surgeons was with an iron pointed knife, for they knew nothing of the Trocar, and they let out the water gradually and not all at once, ^{therefore} to avoid the terrible fainting & even Death, which they found often to ensue upon it being let out all at once, Dr Mead first thought the cause, why People fainted and even died, after the water was drawn off suddenly, was on account of the exposure of the Water, on the Heart, Lungs &c being removed all at once, he said that the pressure being removed, the Blood easily accumulates there, and that it was derived suddenly from the Heart to produce those effects during the operation, therefore a bandage was used to make an artificial exposure by being drawn tighter as the water was discharged, at present however no other pressure is made than that of the hand, The best method of Tapping is without using any pressure, but placing the Patient on a Couch or Bed, so that no faintings will arise; and we shall get out more water if we make the left side the most depending, We prefer the left side to the right to avoid the Liver more certainly, as that Viscus is often found greatly enlarged in Dropsey cases, and so indeed sometimes is the Spleen, We thrust the Trocar into the Abdomen midway between the Navel and the anterior point of the Spine of the Os Ilium, We choose this part —

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part to avoid the Epigastric Artery, which runs up from Poupart's Ligament, along the inside of the Rectus Abdominis. We pierce, on the outside of that muscle. Some have recommended a small wound to be made in the Skin first with a lancet, because they say the edge of the Scar don't cut; but this is unnecessary for, with a small stab the Scarce easily pierces thro' all. When all is over we should gently turn the Canula about to get out with as little pain as possible. The Wound, tho' penetrating, never does Amify, The Patient's body should be coll'd for a length of time afterwards, or last'd in a wrist-coat, which is better than a Roller. Mr John Hunter prefers not colling the Patient's body for two or three days after the operation; as he thinks they are liable to those pains consequent on the operation, if not coll'd directly. The round Scarce does better than the flat one, because it makes a less Wound, & if done quickly gives hardly any pain. Sometimes the water of a Dropsey is gelatinous, but is never so when lodg'd in the cavity of the Abdomen: on. It hardly ever happens but when a Woman is tapped, which makes it seem as if it was contain'd in the ovarium. Dr Hunter has only seen this case once happen in a Man, which proved to be, an Encysted Dropsey of the Liver. Cysts contain Hydatids which are full either of water, or of jelly, and the jelly is sometimes thicker sometimes thinner. The Dropsey of the ovarium makes a hard Tumor at the bottom of the Belly, and before it is grown very big it is moveable, and may be moved from side to side by the hand, the health is good, the menses are usual; in short except from the Swelling the Woman ails nothing at all. Sometimes the fluid is contained in more than

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more than one Egg, and by rubbing the hand over the swelling we can feel the inequalities of the Cyst. In time it fills up the Abdomen, distends it, and might be easily mistaken for Ascites; when it becomes big, it becomes troublesome by pressing on the Viscera, particularly the Stomach, and the Bladder, which last is pressed against the Os Pubis. The Faces and Arms are not properly evacuated. Patients in this case may be cured for the present by kneeling and lowering the Shoulders forwards, by this means the weight of the Trunk will be thrown off from the Pelvis towards the Chest, and having suffered greatly from this Pressure, they will be cured immediately. By the present Ill: health is brought on, which in time will kill the Woman if the Disease remains, we can do nothing material by way of Cure, for we cannot cure them, we can only ease the Woman from time to time by purgating with a Saocat; the water will nevertheless accumulate we must direct her how to take advantage of that position, which will ease her for the present, & afford to the general health. If there happens to be but one Egg, the Operation goes on as in the Ascites, but we should use a large Saocat lest the fluid should be gelatinous: if there are more than one Egg, we can only take one at a time; after we have once opened the Ovarium, the water will again accumulate from it, but will be dried thro the opening into the Abdomen. M^r Le Dran has proposed a radical cure of this complaint by making incision into the Ovarium, but it don't seem to be

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Dropsy

to be probable for generally there are more than one Bag, which
will require so many different Incisions. Some have recommended
excision, but we cannot see where we ought to cut, were we not
to insist upon the danger that must attend such a penetrating
Wound of the Abdomen. The Tumor as it extends, forms Adhesions
to all the neighbouring parts, it dont adhere by a Peduncle only,
so as that we might draw it forward, and cut it off.

Dropsy in the duplicature of the Peritoneum has been very much
talked of, but it appears to be nothing more than Dropsy of the
Cellular Membrane near it, either diffused thro' the Cells, or contained
in a Cyst. Long continued Friction with the hand smeared
with oil is of great Service to Dropsical Limbs — — —

Hernia

Lecture 7th

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By a Co**u**pture is understood a protrusion of some of the Viscera of the Abdomen so as to form an external Tumor: when this happens in the Rings of the Abdominal Muscles, it is called the Bubonous; if under Doupart's Ligament Caval or Femoral, if at the Havel, Umbilical, if at any other part of the Belly, Ventral or Same. Rupture implies that the part is burst, hence a broken belly signifies the same, but in the common co**u**pture that appears gradually, the Peritoneum is never ruptured, but it is only protruded out of the Abdomen, stretched & elongated. Perhaps when a co**u**pture comes on suddenly from some great violence, & it is at that time very large, the Peritoneum is ruptured. As the Tumour increases because the Skin of the Scrotum rises, till it almost or entirely hides the Penis. The protruded parts always lie within a Sac, of the Spermatic Artery, & Skin with the Vas ^Deferens lie behind the Opening into the Sac. After having returned the parts into the Abdomen there is such a thickness underneath the finger as gives the feel as if one was still remaining unreturned. The Sac is never to be set under, for it is fixed by the Cellular Membrane of the Scrotum. As a Hernia increases it pushes downwards, dissects itself a way thro' the Center of the Spermatic Chord, so as to separate the Artery, Vein & Vas Deferens. When the parts protruded do not adhere to the Sac, commonly they are easily returned into the Abdomen, when the Patient lies on his back, but when they adhere to the Sac they never go up. The grotestines are seldom found to adhere, which is perhaps owing to their histotrophic inmotion. Those parts which have no histotrophic inmotion are what are commonly found to adhere as the omentum & appendix caeci. The Scrotum remains open into the Abdomen.

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Abdomen in a young Child, & thro this opening the Intestine or Omentum easily pushes out in Coughing or Crying & come into Contact with the Testicle. This is what Haller calls the Hernia Congenita; all other Hernia have a Sac distinct from the Cavity of the Tunica vaginalis. Testes & Sex Habits are said to be liable to Hernia, for People are more commonly subject to Hernia than men, for by the increasing bulk of Abdominal Content, when the Fat is accumulating, if there is a very weak part, they will push the Peritoneum out there. Women that have born Children, have very often Hernia, especiallyumbilical, Hernia, the Abdominal Contents are protruded by the efflux under intire. The Hernial Sac is smallest at the upper part, & the Tumor is of a Pyramidal figure, because at the upper part it is propped by the Tendinous ring, & if the Patient has ~~worn~~ a Truss the upper part is still narrower, for then it is prevented still more from dilating by the Pad pressing on that place, and perhaps part of it is thus made to grow together. It is sometimes very difficult to distinguish a Hernia from other Disorders especially from an Hydrocele or any Swelling given internally will have but little Effect, and none farther than strengthening the body. A Truss is the only thing that can be of any Service, and should be made of Tauly, Elastic Steel. When a Truss is worn for a Cure, the Patient should never be suffered to come down, or therefore should be worn night & Day, for once coming down undoes all that has been done in a Month before. Young Men & Children get well very commonly by a Truss, The opening into the Sac

from

Hernia

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From the Abdomen is made by the constant pressure of the two sides together to close up, & is obliterated. It will therefore be preserved in for a length of time, even two or three years. The Hernia Congenita that happens to young Children just after Birth does well, & that even so provided the protruded parts are reduced & kept upon some time, it happens that the Tissue occasions painfull Varietates in which case it must be left off, & the Hernia suffered to remain as it is. Twenty different Operations have been advised for the cure, of those Varietates, which are easily reduced. Some have advised cutting off part of the Sac, others to destroy part of the Sac with a Caustic, but Dr Hunter dissuades from all these Methods, for he says, while the Tendon remains dilated, the Cæsura will not be strong enough to resist the pressure of the Abdominal Viscera, & we cannot think of curing an Hernia at the expence of a Testicle. In a Woman perhaps on this Account, the Cæsura might be more preferable, but the Rupture is at least made so tolerable by a Tissue, that these Methods are hardly ever worth the while to be tried. How Inflammation & Strangulation concur, is not understood, but the Case is then very dangerous, & we must immediately endeavour to reduce the Hernia, for the longer it continues unreduced, the greater will be the danger of Reduction, owing as we apprehend, to the Blood being detained by increasing the Bulk. When we attempt to make Reduction, we must gently press the upper part of the Sac inward with the fingers of one hand, & press the Hernial Content upward with the fingers of the other hand, humouring & varying the pressure from side to side, the knees being bent forward, & the body backward to relax the parts at the same.

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the same time. The pressure should be continued for some considerable time, for we may dilate the opening into the Abdomen by degrees, till at last we get the Contents all up, after having given the Patient a good deal of pain, tired ourselves, & often happens that just as we are determining to leave off, they go up all at once, then the like Passion & other Symptoms return, we should even for the last Attempt use some considerable pressure, & with a just to give all possible chance for Reduction before we desist, when the Bumpure has been undarably down for a Number of Years, we may conclude there is Adhesion to the Skin, your Attempts will be to no purpose. In all cases, our Endeavour for Reduction must be made at once, if we do not succeed, then determine upon the Operation, without waiting to see what Bleeding, Glyster, Fomentation or Poultices will do, which appear to do nothing at all. The intent of the Operation is to set the strangulated part free. All Surgeons allow when the like Symptoms are come on, that the Patient must die, if the Operation is not performed, & if they are greatly divided about the importance of the consequences of the Operation; Some say it is attended with but little danger, others that it is exceeding dangerous. It certainly is dangerous, as all penetrating Wounds of the Abdomen, but the danger will increase in proportion as the Operation is longer delayed. We cannot say how long it may be desired safely, therefore it is best to perform it immediately after our first proper Attempt has proved ineffectual. It has been supposed that a small Bumpure, when strangulated is more dangerous than a large one under the like circumstances, because the large one cannot be so completely strangulated as to entirely interrupt the Circulation, so bring on a Mortification so soon as in a small one: but this Observation is of little use in practice, as in two Persons with similar diseases, the one shall die in two or three hours,

hours, the other lie as many days. The purpose of the Operation is to ~~cut~~ cut the Tendon that gets too strongly on the protruded content. This we can do by making an incision immediately down from the skin upon it without wounding the contents, for they having soon without the Tendon rise up, so that it makes a groove in them below their Level, we therefore open the Sac at its lowest part first, & then cut upwards to the Tendon by sliding along a cutting Instrument directed by the finger, we begin by making an incision from the part opposite to the Ring, down to the lower part of the Sac, & through the Cellular Membrane; this must be done by carefully disengaging till we come to a smooth surface, which is the Circular muscle; we cut this this Muscle with Care, & then we come to the outside of the Hernial Sac; M'Anaud has recommended a hook to catch hold of, & draw up the Sac from the contents, that we may make an opening into it with safety, but if a Person cuts carefully he may do it without any other Instrument than the knife; After having made a small opening we must lay the lower part of the Sac open with a pair of Scissors, & then open the upper part with the same to the Ring, All now is laid open but the strangulated Tendon & sufficient room is given for examining the state of the Hernia. Then we are to introduce M'Anaud's crooked button pointed Bistoury, & cut the Tendon into the Abdomen, & cut the Tendon upward & downward. Every thing is now set at liberty & made ready for being turned up into the Abdomen, a small incision of the Tendon will be sufficient to release the structure. If all is in a good state, the protruded part may be returned into the Abdomen without any more to do, but if the intestine is mortified, we are advised to cut off the mortified part, & sew the divided ends of the intestine by the instrument to the external wound just without the Tendon after we have returned the other parts, so that it may remain an Anus. Sometimes the divided ends have been found to unite, & the Stool have taken their old course after the external wound healed up. If there is any part of the

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Epiploa, Modified, it must be cut away before we draw it, leaving only a little to strength off, & in doing this there will be no occasion for a Ligature; if there are small Adhesions, we must cut thru them: if the adhesions are considerable, we must be content to have saved the Patient's Life for the present, & leave the parts in the same situation they were in before the violent Symptoms came on, now that the Stricture is taken off there will be no occasion to sew up the Wound in the Scrotum, we need only put a couple of Stitches at the upper part by the ring to prevent the cavity of the Abdomen from being exposed as much as possible, which Mr John Hunter thinks is the chief cause of all the mischief after this operation. If the surgeon should by chance have wounded the Intestine in opening the Sac, we are advised to keep the wounded part at the bottom of the Wound in the Scrotum by a Ligature hanging out, so that the wounded edges of the intestine may grow & unite with the granulating wound in the Scrotum, & thus be consolidated with closing up the parts. In treating Perforating wounds of the Abdomen, we should sew up the Wound without including the Peritoneum in the Ligature, after we have turned any of the Abdominal Contents that might have protruded, If the aperture is too narrow for this Reduction we must dilate it by a small incision, If the protruded parts are wounded or modified, we must treat them in the same manner as we would in Glaucoma. The operation in Hernia is that of Gastrotomy at this very similar — — —

Hernia.

LECTURE 78th

The Present Professor Morato advises us in case of a strangulated Hernia to make an incision down upon the Tendon that makes the ring, then insinuate a Director under the Tendinous part a little above the ring, conveying it downwards between the Tendon & Muscle underneath, bring the End out at the ring & cut this upon the Director, by this means, he says, the strangulating Tendon may be cut without opening the Sac, or penetrating the Cavity of the Abdomen. The Surgeons of Bristol have often performed the operation in this manner. The great Objections to it are the following. 1. we are left entirely ignorant of the State of the Joints & bone at the time of the Operation. 2. the groove or furrow caused by the ring compressing the Mouth of the Sac, makes it very difficult to cut on that part without wounding the Intestine. 3. lastly the Strangulation is sometimes caused by the Mouth of the Sac independent of the Tendon, & then cutting the Tendon is of no Service. The Epiploce is difficult to reduce, because of the Bulk of Fat in the Epiplooon, & generally Hernia happens to Fat People; the Difficulty is such that we cannot at any time turn it into the Abdomen. Some have advised Reduction to be made by making the Patient lean, & if there is no Adhesion this will do, for as the fat of the body is diminished, the bulk of the Epiplooon is diminished so as to admit of being picked up. Some have recommended the operation in this case only strongly as being only to cut off a bit of fat, & it many have died in consequence of it's being done. It cannot be too strongly inculcated, that all puncturing wounds of the Abdomen are dangerous. If an Epiploce can't be retained

Hernia

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return'd on account of Adhesion, yet a Tuff should be worn to prevent any intestine getting down. There is a chance of the Tuff by pressing the opening of the Sac & Epitropon continually together, bring: ing on such an Adhesion as shall entirely prevent the descent of any thing else. Femoral Hernia seldom grows big, for Poupart's Ligam: ent will not suffer any considerable quantity of Intestine or Oment: um to get under. They have always a Sac, & are generally from as round as a Goose's Egg in size. They must be reduced & kept up by a Tuff, which however is a difficult thing, for the Motion of the thigh is continually throwing the Pad upward. When a Femoral Hernia comes to a Strangulation, we should press to the utmost to return it, if we cannot do so it success, must be had to the Operat: ion, we must open the Sac very carefully, for it generally adh: es to the ten of the Intestine that is strangulated by a kind of Tumour. This tumour is often unattached to, for it is generally but small, it is commonly very hard like a Ball, & so much resembles an Indurated gland, as easily to be mistaken for a Bubo if we do not examine it thoroughly. One small turn of Intestine usually constitutes this Hernian. To operate for the strangulated Femoral Hernia, we make a longitudinal incis: ion exactly midway between the projecting part of the Os Pubis & Anterior Superior Spine of the Os Ilium. This the Skins, Cellular Membrane very carefully, till we come to the Tendon that makes the Ligament to the Sac, we must open the Sac downward to the bottom, & upward to the Ligament with the Crooked Scissars, then gently insinuate the crooked Buttonpointed Bistery under the Ligament into the Abdomen & cut it, if we cut the Tendon upward it inward.

inward we shall cut the Pissendelis Artery, & if we cut upward & outward, we shall probably cut the Epigastrik Artery. As these two Arteries cross each other some have advised us to use a knife that is blunt for cutting the Tendon, thinking thereby to avoid the two Arteries. M^r Arnould directs us to use a blunt hook to make way for the reduction of the parts, by drawing the edge of the Tendon upwards from thence, but tho' this seems plausible, we should rather cut the Tendon, as if we cut directly upwards we shall pretty certainly avoid both Arteries. Women are liable to Exomphalos than to any other Hernia; Men have it but seldom. This in a Child may be cured by pressure; a Compress must be placed upon the opening after the parts are reduced, & be confined in its place by a striking plaster spread on strong Linen: In very fat People the navel lays as in a Well, in such a case it is best to make Blisters of the Temple. Roborans: cutting pieces round from the side of a Cannon piece to a little point, placing them on each other in form of a Pyramid. A little Cotton is to be laid on the Navel & upon that the apex of the Pyramid to cover all a broad piece of plaster with a margin, which is to be secured with a Dimity Bandage: If it is strangulated, the reduction cannot be effected, the operation of freeing the Intestine must be determined on without delay, we may make the incision on either side of the Umbilicus first opening the Sac & then with a knife used in the Buttockcote enlarge the opening; this is commonly ordered to be done towards the left side by which we avoid the Epitrichial garment, but cutting that is of course, as it never remains previous so low down. This is often a very puzzling operation, because the contents of the Sac sometimes lay immediately over the ~~bottom~~ opening into the ~~bottom~~ of the Abdomen.

Virtinal

Ventral Ruptures, seldom acquire the operation, for the opening is not so narrow generally as to strangulate the protruded parts, Ruptures are said sometimes to happen thro' the Foramen magnum & sacrum, but then can never be the object of a Surgical Enquiry, nothing can be done for them.

Hydrocele

Hydrocele is said to be of two kinds, that in which the water is in the Cellular Membrane, & that in which the water is in the Tunica vaginalis propria Testis, but the latter is the only true Hydrocele. When water is collected in the Cellular Membrane, the scrotum is equally distended on both sides most so at the bottom, & feels edematous, a little pressure or two at the bottom will evacuate all the water; water in the Tunica vaginalis propria Testis is forms the true Hydrocele. The swelling at first appears like an enlarged Testicle, afterward the water may be felt on the forepart of scrotum, behind we feel a fleshy substance which is the Testicle. There is a very particular feel in a bag of water, very different from that of fleshy substances, & therefore we may generally readily distinguish a Hydrocele from an Hernia. Another particularity however, which is always observable will never fail to set us right, and that is, that in the Hydrocele the swelling is confined to the scrotum & in the Hernia the swelling is continued from the abdominal ring all the way down to the Testicle, & the patient will generally observe it to have been moved & disappear on lying in bed &c. a coming down again on coughing, straining &c. the like. The tumour is largest at the bottom whereas in an Hernia the swelling is greatest at the upper part. The scrotum & may be commonly felt small & distinct, but sometimes the water affects its way upwards.

Hydrocele

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upward & projects the upper part of the Tunica vaginalis, so as high as to make the Tumor appear as if it come out from the Abdomen at the Ring. In such a case it may easily be mis-taken for a Hernia or that it is collected in the Tunica vaginalis & the Testicle is at the same time diseased & enlarged; in which case the Tunica vaginalis adheres to the Testicle, so as to make two or three cavities, & if a Sac is thrust into an Hydrocele in this state, I will evacuate one cavity & not the rest, & this is called the Encysted Hydrocele. In young Children a Month or two old often have an Hydrocele so that the Parent mistake it for an enlarged Testicle; it always goes away of itself without doing anything for it; if we puncture it it comes again, & it last goes off naturally. Dr Hunter has lately seen one Case, where this Hydrocele has remained five or six years. In grown People it very seldom, indeed hardly ever goes away of itself. In an Old man, a bad Habit or where the Testicle is adhered the Radical Cure is not to be attempted. All Surgeons are agreed that Hydrocele if you do not empty the Tunica vaginalis so that the Water must be drawn off from time to time either by puncturing with a lancet, or by using the Sacar. The Tumor should be pressed on the sides so by so doing the Water is brought forwards and the Testicle thrown backward, then we should plunge in a Lancet at the Anterior part, if a lancet is used, a Probe should be introduced directly afterwards. The wound only requires a bit of Dent or sticking Plaster, lest the disease generally recurs again. The Dr related the Case of a Ripe Grind who had a Hydrocele, for whom he had let out the Water three times with a lancet. He saw him some years afterwards, & he then told him that he had had several attacks of his complaint, but that being unwilling to trouble him any where he had always let the Water out himself with a sharp-pointed knife. What became

Hydrocele

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became of him after this time the Doctor heard or knew, Hydrocele, will often cure itself. From detaching the Bag at some time or other inflammation comes on with Fever, Suppuration, & last the Bag bursts, & when healed it adheres so as to leave behind it a cavity. The same process would take place in an ascites, but then the inflammation infallibly kills the patient. It is with a young man's while to go thro' this operation for the Radical cure. The Radical Cure is brought on by inflammation being produced to such a degree, as to unite the Testicle & Tunica vaginalis together, to obliterate the cavity. Dr Hunter thinks that there is but little difference between the Seton, caustic and incision for the Radical Cure of the Hydrocele, but of the three, he would rather prefer the caustic. The objection to the Seton is the great pain and inflammation, but these are never known to kill. The incision into the Tunica vaginalis, has been known to fail. The caustic never has, in the most preferable method of the three, and the patient will more readily submit to it than incision; a little piece about the size of a florin punny or sixpence is to be applied to make an eschar, and afterwards nothing but poultices of stale Beer & oatmeal are to be used.

Diseases of the Testicle

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Lecture 7th

The Varicose is an Enlargement of the Spermatic Vein and is often exceedingly painful, by pressing on the Vein, the swelling disappears & when the pressure is removed it returns. It is confined to the Vein without the Abdominal Wall. There is no cure for it. It may be eas'd by suspending the Testicle in a Bag. Thus the Greek Surgeons tied the Varicose Vein above & below with a Ligature, & then cut away the Varix. This method cannot be objected to if the Case is bad, for the Blood will be brought back from the Testicle by other Veins, as the Function of that gland will be now ways impai'd. The Sarcocel or Swell'd Testicle happens from many Causes, & when it has continued a great while it is apt to degenerate into Scirrhus or perhaps Cancer. The Swell'd Testicle is the most common disease of the ^{old} man, & should always be suspended. It hardly ever degenerates into Cancer, & continues very hard a long time, but as Incisions are taken it gradually disappears. The Sarcocel continues hard the longest, if neglected it often Supp'rates. The worst case of an Indurated Testicle is that from a blow, or that which comes on gradually from no apparent cause, especially if it were indur'd without pain at first, for then we judge it to be a Scirrhus, which is liable to grow cancerous when the life of the Patient comes to be in danger from this Scirrhus tending to Cancer. we distinguish the Testicle. We have but a very imperfect Idea of a Cancer. By Cancer we mean in general a vague sense any sore or Tumor with great pain, which has a tendency to destroy a Patient, especially if it be situated in a glandular part. It may be produced from a disease in a part, or is locally situated, as a small

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a small hardness in a Woman's Breast left there after Inflammation has subsided, or in the Testicles. It produces a juice peculiar to itself which we may call Poison. Then the Disease will be local, & if we entirely cut away the part, before the Constitution be poisoned we save the Patient. There is another kind of Cancer which seems to be Constitutional, there is a disposition in the Habit to Cancer, here cutting off one diseased part will be no protection to the Patient, for the whole Constitution is poisoned, as the Poison will make its appearance in other parts. It is much to be lamented that we don't know how to distinguish these two cases: If it came from an external Cause that we are acquainted with, as a blow for instance, there is great reason to think that it is only local, if it came from an internal Cause we don't know, it is not advisable to cut off the part, for there is reason to imagine the Constitution is affected. If the Testicle is ever so much diseased, if the Chord is easy & soft, it will be best to castrate, for then we presume that the Disease is local. If the Chord is also diseased, hard, and painfull, & when the Patient lies down, the Testicle is supported, there is pain running up to the Back, it will be to no purpose to castrate, for the Poison is probably diffused thro the Constitution. Sometimes one part of the Testicle becomes Cancerous, sometimes another. As the Testication is not a very dangerous operation, & as one Testicle will answer all purposes, it will be better to take it out a little too soon than to wait, if it is already Cancerous, for if the Cancerous poison should get into the Constitution, it will signify nothing curding the operation. The operation of castration is very simple, it is only disecting out the Testicle, & cutting the Chord at a proper height. Some have proposed to take out the Testicle

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Testicle along with a piece of Skin of the forepart of the Scrotum, Others only to take out the Testicle, if the Tumor is not very large, & the Skin is perfectly sound, there is no reason for taking away any parts of the Skin; if the Tumor is larger, & the Skin ~~is~~ ^{is} diseased & united with the adjacent Testicle, it will be better to remove it, Otherwise, as it would be more painful than one incision thro' the Skin, we should let it alone, & take only the Testicle, we should make a longitudinal incision thro' the length of the Tumor from the ring downwards, then dissect backwards on each side of the Testicle, then dissect it out from the Epididymus which is an easy thing, & clear the whole from the inglobing parts, to the upper part of the Chord. Some direct us to dissect out the Spermatic Chord first, then tie it off, & then dissect out the Testicle, But it is a good way to cut this last, Surgeons have differed with respect to the Treatment of the Chord, Some chose to tie it with a ligature, Others used two ligatures, particularly the Dr Surgeon, who were always afraid of Blood, Some put a ligature round the whole Chord, Mr Dran took up an Idea that all the bad Symptoms happening after this Operation were owing to tying the Vas Deferens, favouring the old notion of it being a Parthenova, therefore directed us to separate the Vas Deferens, & tie the rest only, this however appears to be of no consequence, if any we should avoid the Divisions which we cannot do for there are many Filaments, He directs us too, if we wish to avoid a Ligature, to incise the artery with one Thumb & finger, as if it should bleed sometime after the Operation, then we may use a ligature, the artery does not appear to be of that consequence as to require tying, especially as we can make pressure upon it against the Pubis, We may cut the Chord without making a ligature, & take such means afterwards as shall appear to be necessary, Mr Shay was fond of stitching ^{up} ~~up~~ them

Diseases of the Testicle

used them to unite the lips of the wound in the Sodum, by the first intention, but as suppuration generally goes on, they will only lie in the way, it is best to leave them alone to suppurate as best of themselves — — —

Urinary Complaints

Strangury is owing to many causes: the most troublesome and most common is the Stricture in the Utricle, — There may be a Suppuration of Urine when there is none in the Bladder; the disease is in the Kidney, so that no Urine is excreted, or there is a Stoppage in the Utricle: But the Retention of Urine in the Bladder is the subject of our present consideration, — From whatever cause, the Urine is retained in the Bladder, so as to become alarming, the Warm Bath is of service, often makes the Patient pass Urine immediately; if this don't do, & if we cannot get at a Warm Bath, we should endeavour to introduce a Bougie very gradually, when it has been in the Bladder a few minutes, we should withdraw it, & at an instant a strong call for making Water comes on, the Urine will follow the Bougie, but very slowly, then if we cannot get a Bougie in, which will occasion less mischief than a Catheter, & therefore should be tried first, we should endeavour to get in a Catheter either stiff or flexible, impervious at the End, but with perforations at the sides of the End, the perforations should be small as a number of them, for the edges of the large holes hurt the Utricle, when the Catheter comes out there are always Clots of Blood in the holes, — If the Urine is strong we may then use one with large holes, — When Clots of Blood are left in the Bladder they become loosed by a kind of putrefaction, and discharged thro' the Utricle from time to time, — Any one not accustomed to the introduction of the Catheter had better use a flexible one, but to be practised in it, the stiff Catheter is best, for the direction of its point can be varied with certainty, if there is any

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is any difference, we should first use a Bougie, & if that won't do, then the Catheter. We should keep the Curve of the Catheter to the Patient's body, from first to last, as we introduce it, for by keeping this in one direction the Utricle will be less liable to take any turn. If there is any difficulty of introduction we must raise the end of the Catheter with the finger in and out, and at the same time pulling out the Primum to make the passage as straight as possible. We must rather use continuance than force, for our endeavouring to get it into the Bladder. In suppuration we should make use of Syringes of the Andrye-kind before we use the Catheter, for the irritation from this instrument always increases the complaint in the Utricle, and after unsuccessfull attempts by the Catheter have been made, we should again have recourse to them, & always keep one in this instrument. If every thing proves ineffectual to the life of the Patient is in danger, we must puncture the Bladder. Some have thrust a Scock into it just over the Ova Pubis, which might easily be done now that the Bladder is exceedingly distended, and they have directed the Canula to be left in till the Urine have found its proper course. Mr Sharp punctured the Bladder above the Ova Pubis & left in the Canula, but soon after the Patient complained of great uneasiness, continually purging Water, & died. Upon opening the body they found that the Canula had by degrees worked its way thro' the other side of the Bladder into the Utricle, when it kept up a constant irritation, which was the bane of his purging water as he did. Others have stabbed the Scock into the Bladder from the Primum. The modern Surgeons distribute the puncture above the Pubis, and do it at the Primum so as to wound the Bladder near its Orifice: as the Scock

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Urinary Complaints

1 Trocar rather stretches than cuts the depth of Blotch between the
Skin of the Peninaurn and the Bladder Mr. Gile proposed making
an incision as we do in cutting for the Stone, the orot to large, as
as almost to lay the Bladder bare, and then thrust in the Trocar, and
by this means he conceived that the Irritation from the Canals
being left in would be less, because less flesh would be stretched
This the Dr thinks is the most promising method of any that
has been proposed. A Surgeon at Lyons has proposed to puncti-
tare the Bladder from the Rectum with a curved Trocar, and
he says, that the small wound produced by the instrument
in this part will not remain fistulous. But all wounds of
the Bladder into the Rectum that Dr Hunter has seen, who
that small or great prove fistulous, and besides this there
will be very great danger of injuring the Utricular Seminalis
and therefore he would by no means recommend this operation
whatever method we would wish to use when the complaint
arises from an enlarged Prostrate gland, we are obliged to
do it above the ofea Pubis and then alone, for the enlarged
gland often fills up the Pelvis, and thus to the Bladder out
of it. In fistulæ of the Bladder we can do very little good
farther than the drawing off the urine when it becomes trou-
blesome. Force is improper for we may easily make a soad
Procharotie Medicines are not to be used, we should use innocent
Bougies

Urinary Complaints

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Bougies, go on gradually dilating, if we once get into the Bladder we must proceed cautiously to increase the size of the Bougies by degrees, & after we have made the passage pretty free, the man must have recourse to a Bougie at times, perhaps for all his life: his life will thus be more comfortable, & a relapse prevented, after the Bougie has passed the Stricture & lain in the Utrchia for sometime, when it is withdrawn, we generally see the mark where the Stricture passed upon it. Thisula in Punico commonly owes its origin to an obstruction of the Utrchia from Stricture, therefore we should begin the Cure of the Complaint by first opening the Stricture; when the passage is opened, the Urine takes its old bent, & the Thisula closes up, when a stone sticks in the Urinary passages there is an effort raised by nature, which pushes it on farther, when it has passed the Prostate gland it gets into the membranous part of the Utrchia, and then into a wider part of the Canal, & the Bulb, here it commences only sticks, the passage from hence growing smaller; if there is a probability of the Stone passing we must encourage that disposure by the Warm Bath, and inject some oil into the Utrchia, and if it moves a little, it generally passes quite thro'. If it be within reach the Surgeon should loosen it with a Probe, or endeavour to draw it out with the Canula. If these methods do not succeed we must cut the Stone out of the Utrchia, differently according to the different Circumstances. Some draw the skin aside sideways before they cut upon the Stone, so that the External wound may not correspond with the wound in the Utrchia, as thus prevent the Urine running thro' it occasioning

Urinary Complaints

occasioning a fistula. But this instead of being the ready means of preventing a fistula is the ready means of creating one, for a little water getting this the internal wound not being able to escape by the naturally will occasion inflammation & suppuration from its lodging in the bladder membrane, the consequence of which will be a fistular. The best way is to cut this all upon the stone with the skin in its natural situation & then put a catheter into the bladder, make a couple of fine stitches thro' the skin of the wound, and include a little of the substance of the bladder. If it be in that part of the bladder, which is under the scutum, we must endeavour to get it farther backwards, or forward; if this can't be done, we must cut it out at the lateral part of the scutum. It will be better if possible to get it backward, & turn up the scutum so as to cut behind it to avoid as much as possible a depending drain in the scutum. When a stone is in the bladder at the prostrate gland, we must cut upon it in an extraneous body, we must introduce a finger into the bladder, pull the stone forward & inward so as that it may project at the orifice, & cut upon it as incutting upon the pipe.

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Empyema

Lecture, 80

The making an opening into the cavity of the chest to discharge any blood is called the Empyema. In France the Surgeons have made use of a Sacot to perform the operation for the Empyema, but Dr. Hunter says it is a very dangerous experiment. The safest way is to make use of a common sharp dissecting knife, and we should use this exceedingly cautiously, feeling as soon as we draw, cut down to the Pleura whether we can discover a fluctuation or tumescence. To do this we should desire the Patient to cough keeping the finger still against the Pleura. In letting the matter run out we should compress the ribs that the air may be excluded, and we should make the Patient breathe only with one Lung, when we have let out as much matter as will be necessary at one time, we should draw the skin over the external wound & desire the patient to make a deep inspiration & draw his ribs upwards, by this means the external skin will serve as a flap, prevent the admission of any air. As soon as the cells are a little more expanded by respiration, we may then open the wound & let out the remaining matter without any danger of the Patient's fainting, & lastly we should cover the whole with a piece of Netting, plaited that will when very strongly, keep the parts in that situation in which they are placed, viz with the external skin acting as a flap to the external wound thro' the skin into the cavity of the thorax.

In doing the operation for the Empyema we must make the wound as depending as possible; we should rather make the opening on the side of the body a little away above the attachment of the Diaphragm either

between

Empyema

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between the 7th & 8th Rib, & between the 6th & 7th. The incision that is made, must be parallel to the Ribs, rather nearer the lower than the upper, Ribs to have a better chance of avoiding the Intercostal Artery, and having laid the Pleura bare, we can more certainly determine whether the Chest contains a Fluid by the Fleetcoation. If it does, we may open the Pleura either with our nail scratching it, or with the point of a knife, keeping still near the lower Rib. If there is any fluid, it immediately rushes out; if there is a large quantity we had better let it out at different times than at once, this will perhaps prevent a fatal fainting, which Mr. Gilr. saw follow immediately upon the discharge of a large quantity, for the lungs having been long pressed together cannot expand themselves readily upon the removal of the pressure, hence the Patient faints, & perhaps dies. Every time the Patient inspires we should close the incision to prevent air from getting into the cavity of the Chest, for air might probably do the same mischief as the Fluid did. We should let the Fluid run back in Expiration; a piece of sticking plasters laid on the Wound will serve the use of a Valve, the Fluid will be forced out in Expiration, but in Inspiration the plasters will be sucked up against the Wound & prevent the air getting in; generally the Patient dies after the Operation because the wound cannot be healed by the first intention, induration, inflammation, & suppuration come on, which by diffusing themselves over the Chest destroy the Patient, the many People have talked of doing it with as much indifference as opening a common abscess. It frequently happens that matter is contained in a kind of cyst formed by Adhesion of the lungs to the Pleura; D' Hunter never saw it but once, in the

Empyema,

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in the general cavity of the Chest i. Pleurisy & Peripneumony gone: nally go together, The inflammation is communicated from one part to the other, the Matter ^{so} formed seldom or never gets way externally, but generally forces into the cavity of the Chest, & makes Empyema, or into the Trachea & occasions elevation of Pulmonary Consumption. Generally Speaking, Inflammation & Suppuration is found to suppose the upper back part of the Lungs under the Shoulder-blades more than any other part. A Characteristic mark of the Matter is coming from the cavity of the Thorax in a humor which appears Detinably i. the Ribs, is a projection of it on coughing, & in this case we ought to open the humor & let the Matter out immediately. When Nature does not point out the matter in this way, the Dr. thinks that the operation should not be performed, for in the first place, we dont always know when there is matter, & secondly if there is matter, we dont know exactly to what particular part it is confined, & moreover the Patient generally dies so. The most common fluid discharged by this operation is mucus, another frequent kind is water. A Patient affected with Hydrocephalus com- monly wakes hurried & frightened from his sleep; His viscera are unaccord, & the operation will do nothing more than ease him of his present load, the Water will collect again if he lives long enough; we must always be uncertain of the existence of humor & one of a collection of fluid in the cavity of the Thorax, therefore we should never use a Trocator. Another kind of fluid (but seldom sent with humor) is Blood, for when so much Blood is sent into the Chest as to cause difficulty of Respiration, there is such triveling done internally, as to kill, & the Surgeons of the Army as Bravery way, that three cases always end in Death. It has been recommended at Edinburgh to do this operation for the discharge

Empyema

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The discharge of Air, as will seldom be confined in the Chest of a Person that can live, for it generally gets in from a wound of the Lung, which is almost certainly fatal, & besides it happens commonly from a Rib or Ball, so that there will already be an external opening; when a Rib is broken, a Spicula of Bone might wound the Lung, thus Air gets into the Cavity of the Chest, but here the Air gets into the Cellular Membrane likewise by the Wound thro' the Pleura, it diffuses over the whole body, & if we let it out from the Cellular Membrane we let it out from the Chest at the same time. The only case where it can get into the Chest alone, is when a Spicula has wounded the Lung, which being replaced by the Pleura being but little wounded, acts as a Valve before the opening into the Cellular Membrane, when only one lobe of the Lung is diseased, the Patient commonly lays easier on that side, because the lobe is in a manner useless, while the other has more room to perform its functions.

Amputation of the Breast

The Breast of women often inflames & suppurate kindly after Childbirth; it is a general rule in such cases to apply Poultices, and let them break of themselves, if in two places or in twenty it is the same thing we should do nothing else, only press the Breast when a fresh Poultice is applied for the sake of Cleaning, & let them heal, that's one way, which they will do tho' much hardness remains; The glandular part of the Breast will often feel very hard in comparison to the other parts of the Breast, so that we should not always conclude hardness due to be of the Scirrhus kind, Tumors however proceed from blows, and Scirrhus hardnesses coming of themselves are extremely dangerous, & ought to be particularly attended to, these Lumps should be removed

Amputation of the Breast

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removed early especially if they alone or in the manner we mentioned
laste w^t of themselves. There is no doubt but there are sometimes
hardnesses in the Breast, which even men of great experience have
supposed to be extremely alarming, & y^t have been cured by some old
Women or other in the Country, from only the use of Constrict & Comminution,
so that we should never be too particular in our Prognosis & not
neglect the attendance of what at first sight may appear to be
incurable. If we open the Abscusses, tent them &c we shall
only make bad worse, a woman, who has had a Milk-Sore once is
not the more liable to have it again on that account, & Hunter
never knew of a Milk-Sore terminating in a Cancer, he says, & they
always do well, as we don't know what a Cancer is, we cannot
properly define it. The Progress of one on the Breast is generally as
follows, first the Nipple is drawn inwards & tickle dry, then a
hardness may be left around it, the Skin is puckered in, and fixed
to the Ribs, all the Flesh is hardened by contracted, whether it ulcerates
and bleeds, or not, it is called a Cancer, so that we shall call that
a Cancer which goes on to destroy the Patient, whenever the Malady
appears to be local, there are great hopes from Extirpation, if the
Malady is general, it will be only torturing the Patient, and bring
ing a Disease on Surgery to take off the Breast; if it is fixed
to the Ribs we cannot take it off, and if the glands of the arm pit
are affected, it is impossible to cure it, unless we can take them
and also, therefore if they can be extirpated without danger, they
always

Amputation of the Breast

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always & should. The Poison being absoled from a dangerous Effect the Lymphatic Glands thro' which they pass will otherwise be inflamed, and the redmarks go on into them, and in this case taking away the Breast will be attended with no Advantage, as a Tainted part will be still remaining. As much Skin as safely can must be preserved; it should therefore be begin above & carried downwards. What Bleeding there is, comes in the direction from the Axilla which may be stopped by Ligatures; there is some bleeding also from the Mamillary branches, but these generally require no particular Attention. After the Breast is removed, the Surgeon examines whether any diseased part remains behind, if there does he cuts it out; which is generally toward the Arm. P. 42, we are directed to make an incision in the Skin, & dig them out, but this is hardly adviseable. The operation should be performed easily & largely in the direction of the Lymphatics; the Scalpel, & no other instrument than a common dissecting knife will be necessary. The Breast should be amputated before we take out any diseased gland in the Axilla, for the Skin being cut up a little toward the Axilla will enable us to remove the glands with much more ease; the turn should be drawn in, as near the body as the operation will admit of. — — —

We generally have 3 Boxes, one for the Viscera, one for the Brain, &
one for the Heart besides the coffin for the body. The Boxer should be
taken out, & clean washed in several waters. Wash all the internal
Surfaces of the Body, dry all with Sponges & Cloths, then wash the whole after
the Blood has been washed out, with Camphorated Spirit of Wine.
There are two Powders usually required, a coarse one of sweet smelling
Herbs, & a fine one of Cinnamon, Nutmeg, & other Spices. The Viscera,
are to be put into a Box which is to be filled up with one of the powders,
then a bottle or two of Camphorated Spirit of Wine is to be ground into
them, & they should then be soldered up. In doing the Heart, the Ventricle
& Auriacles should be filled with Powder, & it should be left with the Apex
downwards. The Thall must be filled with Powder & some must be
strewed between the Scalp & the Cranium. The Abdomen, Thax, &
other Cavities must be filled with it, all must be well wet with the
Spirit, & then be soldered up. The Body must be wrapped in a
Cloth made of a Sheet dipped in a Melted composition of any colour,
the best thing will be an oiled Cloth, or oiled Silk for the
purpose; a little of the fine powder may be sprinkled over the body
before it is wrapped up. The whole is to be packed up with any coloured
Tape, we please, beginning at the head & going downward. As much of
the mould of the limbs as possible should be preserved, & especially
if we wish to preserve the body, as soon as we can conveniently, we should open the
Inguinal Art. or that in the Thigh & inject the Spirit of the body quite full
of Camphorated Spirit of Wine. Next wash all the parts very quickly & dry
them with Sponges & Cloth, & inject the arteries of the Arms & Legs from their
Sponges with the Spirit. Use powder & Rosin instead of the other powders,
& pour thereon plenty of Sp of Sanguidine, the Rosin will be dissolved by
the Spirit, which dissolving by degrees will leave the whole cemented
together; then as before directed; then we may preserve the body, & one time

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Lithotomy

Lecture 82^o

Celosus, & therefore probably the Greek Surgeons recommended this operation in Boys of a certain Age only. Celosus describes the Operation thus: a Finger or two are to be introduced into the Bladder to draw the Stone towards the Urethra, & make it project there, & then cut it and as one would a Ball: The precise manner in which the incision was made, is not known; but Paetus Aginetta directs us to cut upon the Stone a little to the left of the Raphe, & till 150 years ago this Method was universally practised; The knife & the hand were all that was necessary. It was called cutting on the Griffe, probably because the Stone is first gripped, & then cut upon; as it cannot be done upon Adhesive & very young People. The greatest objection to this Method is that we can't cut with certainty, as we know that after this Operation the Patients were generally impotific, the Seminal Drifts being cut thro'. Besides the coats of the Bladder must be hurt by the Griffe, especially if the Stone were a rough one. Johannes de Romanis was the Inventor of the greater Apparatus: His Scholae Marianae Smaller published it in 1624. Johannes introduced a grooved Staff into the Bladder, made it project at the Urethra, & cut upon the Groove in the Bulbous part of the Urethra, then he introduced the Male Conductor into the Bladder by means of a Probe that slept along the Groove, withdrew the Staff & introduced the Female Conductor, between the Conductors after he had stretched the Urethra by opening them, he passed the Forceps into the Bladder, withdrew the Conductors & extracted the Stone, so that he stretched & tore the membranous part of the Urethra, which was the cause of great mischief. Peter Franco, Provincial Herniary, & Lithotomist

Lithotomy

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Lithotomist published a Book on Uteria about the middle of the 16 Century. In this Book he tells us, that having cut a Way for the Stone, he found the Stone too large for Extraction at the Uterus, then chancing to lay his Hand on the Utris he felt the Stone, he immediately cut above the Utris into the Bladder, & took out a very large Stone; This case proved successful, but we dont find that he ever practised it after-
wards, & after this Noctes a Frenchman published a Book upon the
Cavarian Operation, wherein he recommends the High Operation for the
Stone, (as the Method of Francesco is called) but it gained no Reputation
in Europe till Mr John Douglas, Brother of Dr Douglas the Londoner
introduced it with some Improvement, which was as follows; He to
avoid more certainly a penetrating Wound into the Abdomen by wounding
the Utriculum, injected an inward fluid such as Barley Water into the
Bladder to distend & make it rise up above the Utris considerably,
he then cut longitudinally thro the Utriculum down to the true Bladder,
so as to lay it bare, then plunging in a small knife with the back turned
towards the Utris he let the Bladder upwards, thrust in his finger
to keep open a passage for the Scissors, which he introduced to extract the
Stone. The Objection to this was, that the Bladder could not be raised
always sufficiently to enable the Surgeon to cut clear into it without
wounding the Utriculum & therefore the Patient generally died; It
happened very now & then that the Utriculum was wounded so that the
Bowel came out & another Objection was, that there was not a
depend ing drain for Gravel or small pieces of Stone that might be
broken off by the Scissors, & so matter; another Objection of a very material
one was that the Urine insinuated itself into the Cellular Membrane above
the Utris, & occasioned Internal Suppuration & Distaste. This
method

Lithotomy

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Method was found very inconvenient, & is now laid aside. Dr. Thompson observes that it cannot be practiced in grown People, but may in very young Creatures, for the Fundus of the Bladder in a Fetus is as high as the upper end of the os sacrum, & gradually falls lower & lower as we grow up. There Jaques a monk came to Paris, & there published the lateral Method, & performed several operations, & had an order from the King of France, that his Physician & Apothecary should attend his operation, & examine the bodies afterwards, & report to him what parts were cut in the operations; how far he had a right to encourage him. The report these People made to the King was not a very favourable one, they said the operation was a very random one, but that it might be much improved. He used a Staff at first without a groove, planing a long knife, between the Pinnaeum & the Anus, & the Tuberosity of the Jochium into the body of the Bladder; till he met with the Staff, and then cut upwards towards the Pinnaeum. Some of his Patients lived & some died, but it was found that he cut so much in the Dark, and so differently, that his operation was not alike in any two cases, he often missed the knife thro' & thro' the Bladder. Mr. Chevelden first used the lateral Method in England, after that Prof. Dr. Ran had used it with great reputation in Holland. Mr. Chevelden making the Staff to project on the left side of the Pinnaeum, midway between the Tuberosity of the Jochium and the Verge of the Anus, cut into the groove, then turning the edge of the knife upwards, he felt for the Staff in the Body of the Bladder already nearly laid bare by the first incision, cut upon it by keeping the

Instrument

Lithotomy

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Return aside with his fingers, & continued the incision thro' the Prostrate Gland to the first incision in the Wall of the Utricle & introduced a Gorg & to conduct the Forceps into the Bladder. This is the Account he gave of his operation. But he did not cut so far back into the Bladder as was generally imagined, but might not cut a little of it, but the greatest part of the passage was thro' the Bladder, often wounded the Prostate. Another Surgeon proposed to turn the back of the knife into the groove of the Staff after the first incision & then push it on into the Bladder, but by persisting in this way the Prostate almost always was wounded, so that if the Patient recovered a Fistula remained, and another accident which happened to him & Mr Chaveller was this, the cutting thro' the Seminal Ducts which had the same effect as Castration in Mr L. D. Dran proposed an Instrument to be thrust along the groove of the Staff into the Bladder, which cuts the Prostrate Gland sideways & avoids the Seminal Ducts. This is a good Instrument, but Mr Hawkins's cutting Gorg is better, because it makes one Instrument less necessary, & the incision made by it is much the same as the other, for after Mr L. Dran's Instru-^{ment} had cut, a conducting Gorg ^{is} to be used to conduct the Forceps into the Bladder. Now Mr Hawkins's cutting Gorg is a sufficient Conductor. The Forceps are always made hot to a heat quite above, when they are thrust into the Bladder upon the Gorg, the Gorg is taken out, the Operator then opens the Forceps to grasp the stone. Now it sometimes happens, when a Surgeon can feel the Stone very distinctly, that he can't catch hold of it, in this case it is owing generally to the Forceps being introduced too far & therefore we should withdraw it a little, & endeavor to lay hold of it with the Extremity of the Instrument, in this way we shall very frequently

Lithotomy

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very frequently succeeds, at the extraction of a long Stone must necessarily be attended with more or less laceration of the part, we should use the more violence than is absolutely necessary, but pull gradually, drawing it from side to side, from the fore part to the back part until we have got it away. Small Gravel remaining should be taken away by the Scoups which has a groove in it that better to introduce the Scoups to take away any thing that may be left, the other end will frequently serve, when the finger is not long enough. In our present lateral Method we use Mr. Hawkin's Gorgit which is on the left side, because the left side of the Utricle is generally lower; it should not be pushed too far into the Bladder, least the Blad. should go thro' the oppos; side of it. — When we operate in a Woman, the labia are thrown aside, & a groove & Director introduced into the Bladder, then introduce a small Gorgit by means of the groove, withdraw the Director & introduce a larger Gorgit upon the first, open the Gorgit to dilate the Utricle of all the Scoups between them into the Bladder, take away the Gorgit & extract the Stone, but in this way we always lacerate the Utricle, which occasions incontinence of Urine, & perhaps a fistula opening into the Vagina; it is better therefore to cut the Utricle, Mr. Hawkins does this with his cutting Gorgit introduced by a female Grooved Staff, has to slide, & view, nay, & it does not make any communication with the Vagina, the wound being a cut, ends well or at least much better than a Lacerated & soiling thing is commonly as well as before, & when the Bladder contracts, & it is possible that it may lie upon the edge of the cutting Gorgit & be wounded thereby, this being kept in the Bladder all the while the Scoups are introducing. Dr. Hunter advises therefore to withdraw the Gorgit as soon as it has cut into the Bladder.

Amputation of the Penis

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Lecture, 83

In performing this operation we should endeavour to preserve as much sound Skin as possible. Before we operate, the Skin should be drawn rather backward, then as much of the Penis may be dissected off as is necessary. Some advise tying the artery after the operation, but Dr. Hunter thinks a sufficient pressure may be made on it to prevent an haemorrhage. A piece of Bougie should be kept in the Utricle to keep it from closing up with the Catgut or Rue pitch suture. Let the Penis to be tied quite sound with a ligature, leaving the lower part to slough off, but this is much worse than cutting it off, because, the pain will last much longer. We should be very cautious of operating on elderly People of Scrofulous Habits, especially if they are hard Drunkards.

Fistula in Ano

Abscesses near the Anus do not heal up so readily as other Abscesses after they break, but in general become Fistulæ, & a Fistula always implies a Son of long Standing with an hard contracted Office; when the Cavity of the Abscess & gut communicate it is called a complex Fistula; if there is also an opening externally. In this case the Sacs are principally discharged thro' the Anus, but some always pass also thro' the external opening in the Perineum. To enlarge this opening will not be sufficient to cure the Fistula, for it will remain not without discharging, but the cavity of the Abscess must be laid into one with the cavity of the gut by an incision. To make this incision it has been recommended to introduce a flexible grooved Probe thro' the external opening & push the end of it thro' just above the hole in ^{if there is any} the Indications into the Perineum, then bring the end out at the anus with the finger.

Fistula in Ano

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the finger, & cut all upon the groove. The Modern Method is to use a narrow probe pointed Bistort only, introduced in the same manner as the grooved Probe, pushing the point thro into the Cavity of the Gut, & drawn out with the finger behind the end in Recto, so as to divide all the parts above. Dividing the Sphincter Ani is of no consequence as it will heal kindly & perform its Office as before. Mr. De Dean used to cut out a piece of the Fistula partly from the Buttack & partly from the Gut. Mr. Dott argues against this practice very strongly, but it appears that the larger the opening has been the more certain has been the cure. There is great difficulty to get the probe point of the Bistort thro the Buttack. Therefore it does not make so good an Operation as the common knife with the flexible grooved Probe. An incomplete Fistula or what has been called a Blind One, is that which has only one opening, & this is of two kinds, one which has only an internal opening, & the other only an external one. In cases of Abscesses about the Anus, the Dr. thinks it is best to open them early & largely; early because the matter will otherwise be daily increasing, destroying the adjacent parts & rendering them hard & callous, and largely because there will then be less danger of their becoming fistulous.

BRONCHOTOMY

This is done to prevent Suffocation, therefore we suppose the suffocating cause to exist above the Aperture we intend to make into the Trachea. This is always a troublesome & oftentimes a disgracfull Operation, for long-necked People there is sufficient room, but in short-necked the Trachea lies very low down towards the Breastbone. we have the Thyroid Gland to cut thro which is a very vascular part, & will furnish a copious hemorrhage. In doing the Operation we first lay bare the trachea

Bronchotomy

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Trachea, between the lower end of the Clavoid Cartilages & the Sternum, then make a transverse opening between two of the Ridges, & keep a double Canal in it (which should be directed downwards) till the disease that prevents Respiration is removed, continuing to employ in the meanwhile the common Remedies necessary for the Cure of that disease. A Double Canal is used for the convenience of cleaning the Instrument from time to time. It will at best be a troublesome operation for the Patient will vomit in the Blood in Inspiration, which will wet him according to what is coughed up and easily get into the Artificial opening, & perhaps may suffocate him - when all danger of Suffocation is removed the wound is to be healed up, when a Person cuts his throat, the man's Head should be bent down to the neck, to bring the edges of the wound together, so as to unite, for it takes occasion an uneasy Cough from the Irritation which they produce.

Wry Neck

The Dr^a has seen only three Cases, in which there was a prospect of the operations succeeding, & only two in which the Operation had been performed in both of which it turned out very unsuccessfull.

If the Wry Neck is owing to the rigidity & contraction of the Sternomast. muscles, & to nothing else, then cutting that muscle will set the neck to rights. The safest plan to do it is to cut the muscle just above the Clavicle, & here the scar will be less disagreeable - we should do it very cautiously, & when it is done we should keep the head in the natural position, or even rather tending to the sound side, when a Wry Neck has been of long standing, the bones often take the Curve, in which case the Operation can be of no service.

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Extirpation of the Tonsils & Uvula.

Lecture 8th

The Tonsils & neighbouring parts are sometimes much swelled from cold, & often one or both Tonsils tend to suppurate, but these cases are never dangerous, because before the Tonsils are so much swelled as to endanger Suffocation, a Sancet may be thrust into them, which will discharge the matter if any is formed, & if not the Bleeding will lessen their size. When the Tonsils are enlarged they occasion a disagreeable thicknes of Speech, & labouring Respiration, of the Patient commonly sleeps with his mouth open. We know of no process that will reduce these glands to their former size, & as they never become Cancerous they should be extirpated. The Tonsil must be drawn out with a hook, double, with both prongs pretty broad that they may not tear out their hold upon it. And off with the Tonsil Scissors, or we may cut it off with a small knife beginning below from the Tongue & cutting upward; for if we cut from above downward, the Blood will ^{so} obscure everything, that we shall not be able to bring the knife out below, & avoid the Tongue. If we make use of a knife it should be a very narrow one. Mr John Hunter makes use of a pair of long straight Scissors in preference to a pair of Tonsil scissars; he lately extirpated one of the Tonsils of a Foreigner in this manner with Scissars. Another way is to tie a Sigeature very tight round the Basis of the Tonsil, or if the Baver is not narrow enough, to run a double Sigeature thro' its middle, & tie the corresponding threads one, each side; in both cases the Coagulation being interupted wholly, the Tonsil will slough off. The mouth should be kept open by placing a bit of silk, covered with wax in the corner of the mouth. Some have oblidged to the Excision of the Tonsils on account of the hemorrhage, but Dr Hunter says it never proves dangerous. Another method is to

Exstirpation of the Tonsils of Ulula

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bruise the Tonsils & get rid of it by Sanguination: This will do when we cannot persuade a Patient to submit to the other Methods & may easily be done by a pair of Scissors. When the Ulula is enlarged it hangs down the Throat, & occasions difficulty of Breathing, unwholesome & Cough, which can be remedied by Exstirpation only: so much as is above. the natural length should be cut off: Some have recommended a Suture to be tied round it very tight, & make it a rough Surface to destroy it with Gauze, but these Methods are hardly practicable, in a Throat too ticklish a pair of long Poly-pew Scissors to take hold of the Tonsil Scissors to cut it off as all that we want. Mr. Hunter's Instrument does not do so well, it is apt to leave a small part undivided & another disagreeable circumstance is that the part which is cut off will frequently fall down the Throat & be swallowed. Dr. Hunter never saw but two Cases that required the Operation, no great Hazard age need be feared.

Tongue tied

It is a vulgar error that Children are commonly born Tongue-tied, it is a case which happens very seldom: Nurses suppose that the Choking of some Children is a Sign of their being Tongue-tie. Dr. L. says that he don't know that ever he saw three Tongue-tied Children in his life: Nurses are continually supposing they are, especially if they do not take the Bread & Milk kindly. If the Tongue can be brought over the Gums & Lips we may apprehend that the Child is not Tongue-tie: when the Tongue is tied the Throat may be tight with a pair of Scissors, it should be done carefully a line under the Tongue may be of bad consequence from the Child's continually sucking it.

The Hare Lip

Children are often born with many Disformities, which we cannot account for, among these the Hare Lip is very common, & often there is a Tissue in the upper part of the Mouth, which running backward divides the

Ulula

The Flare Lip

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Voulans when we are called to a young Child, have told that the Food comes
thus it doth, we shall always find a cleft Palate tho' there be no Hand up.
There are several kinds of this kind disease; a simple fissure of the
upper lip alone, a double fissure with a small eminence or nippel between
the two; the generality of them incurable by the operation, but in some
instances the division is very large, & here we cannot undertake to attempt
the operation. A cleft Palate is incurable, the Voice is always affected
as the Child grows up; when it is accompanied with a Flare Lip then the
external deformity may be cured, tho' the other cannot. I have not never
heard of a Child being born with a cleft in the Under lip, if the Case is
favorable the operation should be performed as soon as possible after the
Child is born, because the first days the Child takes but little nourishment
till in the mean time the Wound is cured. In all the cases when the Operation
is performed in operation soon after birth it has always succeeded; he advises it
to be done two or three hours after birth, the Surgeon begins the opera-
tion by turning the cleft Lip up, and dipping it clear
from the Gum to make room for the angle of the two Jowissons;
then he cuts off the Callous Edges of the Fissure with a pair of
Scissors at two Cuts; if there are two fissures the same is to be opera-
ted, but if the middle part dont come so low down as the rest,
after it is cut it must be unit with the middle upper part of the
lower Edges brought together so as to make one Scar. The two Woun-
d Edges must be brought together to unite by the first intention
and this should be done while they are bleeding; the Union is to be
accomplished by two Pins and to make them the corner the lower pin
must be put in first; then the thread must be wound round them
sufficiently tight in the form of a figure of 8 beginning the first
corner

The Hare Lip.

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turn round the lowermost pair, to make the edges only just touch each other. Some keep the needles in eight hours only, others two or three days. The next day however they may be taken out in general, but this must be regulated according as we see that the Union goes on for which season we must determine the wound and either slacken or tighten the threads as we see occasion. Mr. John Hunter recommends the common interrupted Suture in preference to the technical suture with Pins. If the Lip be divided accidentally, the edges should be brought together immediately. As we see it often in the state of Suppuration, so also should a fissure of the Ala Nasi & Eye lid, & that for the wounds will soon heal, but not unite one edge with the other, and an unseemly fissure will remaine, which will always prove the case when the Cut is divided & care is not taken, probably owing to the parts being so thin that the fortifications shoot thro. It must had the Eye lid of one eye fised by an Hanger without hurting the Cornea, the wound heal'd up, and left a fissure in each, he had constant Headach from the continual admission of light upon the Eye, for it was uncoveryd until he bound it up. The edges of the fissures were made fleshy by scraping off the cicadices with Scipers, & brought into contact by the interrupted Suture, so that he was cur'd as we are a Hare Lip. Mr. John Hunter recommends the interrup'ted Suture in the Hare Lip, and says they are better than leaving the needles in the lip. When the needles are remov'd the points should be cut off after they are put in. They should be made of Silver pointed with Steel, Turners on the lips that we suppose may become

Concavous.

The Hare Lip

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Cancerous should be cut in the same manner as we cut the Edges of a
Figure, that is we must make an angular wound which must be treated
as a Hare Lip - a wound dividing the lower Lip should be taken
care of particularly, because if it heals & covers a Figure, the Saliva
will continually dribble out of the Mouth - - -

Poly pusses

Poly pusses are of different consistencies, from a cellular Membrane filled with
to a firm substance in a Tumor proper the Sustentor Barium avitare it
increases so as to shut up both nostrils, it must be pulled out either by
the Poly pusses forceps by the nose, or by the mouth, according as it presents it self
if we are to pull it out by the nose, just before we close the forceps
we should desire the Patient to blow his nose, to bring the Tumor into
the blades - if we are to extract it by the mouth, we must desire him to
draw the Air thro' the nostril for the same purpose, & blow as much
as he can - it has been recommended to tie the root of the Poly pusses, &
let it droop off, but that is hardly to be done as Poly pusses are sometimes
of a calcareous nature, we hardly know from what particular part of
the nose Poly pusses generally proceed, they have been but seldom examined
anatomically after Death - The D^r had once the opportunity of seeing the
inside of a nose with a Poly pusses but once after Death, & that was in the
case of a cancerous Poly pusses - in this the parts were so much destroyed
the bones rendered so very Cancerous that it was impossible to determine
from whence it arose - - -

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Fistula Sacrymalis.

Lecture, 85th

The Tears & Mucus being accumulated in the Sacrum Sacrymalis occasions a Tumor externally, which do what we will generally breaks thro' the Skin, & makes an Ulcer that will not heal. The Ancients knew nothing of the true nature of this disease, they thought that the bone was unsound, which prevented the healing of the Ulcer. The Moderns find that it is owing to an Obstruction in the Ductus ad Nasum, & that Opening this Duct, or making a new one will cure the disease. It often happens in Scrophulous Tubs, if we cannot get a free passage into the Groove, for as soon as we make one it will close up again. In this case, the Habit should be first cured of Scrophula by Bathing, Bark & before any Attempt is made to open the passage, to open the passage we must open the Sacrum. Some have directed the Eye to be covered up with bits of Vicking plaited for some time before the Operation, to confine the Tears & make the Sac long & that it may be the more certainly opened, but as we are to feel for the bony ridge, it is best to open it when empty. We must avoid cutting the Tendon of the Orbicularis Palpebratum & cut below it, by drawing the Eye side outwards, the Tendon will rise up conspicuous. We must feel for the ridge of the Bone at the brim of the orbit, & within that cut downwards to the bone to open the Sac, then pass a Probe down the Duct into the Groove to clear it, & fill the wound up with lint to dilate it. Next day we must take out the lint, pass a bit of Bougie down the Duct, & keep it in day & night or by having the Bougie after several Day, & increasing the size now & then the passage may become sufficiently opened, then we leave off the Bougie & heal the external wound, but the Duct is sometimes so much obstructed that we cannot pass any thing down it, in this case we must penetrate the bony ridge for a new passage late the Groove.

Fistula Sacrumalica

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the Nose, &c. The best Instrument to do this with is the Inspector of a straight Bougie, the point should be carried to the lower part of the Sac, either the posterior part too, & pushing it thus thro' the bone, the point must be directed inward, & downward, nearly in a direction towards the Patient's Urethra, as Mr. Dran observes, we must gently turn the Instrument about, else we shall pierce the bone precipitately, & wound the other parts in the Nose, for the Os Utrigis is as this a bit of Paper; a piece of Bougie must be kept in this opening to make the sides callous, so that a perfect passage may be formed. When it is formed, we must leave off the Bougie, & heal up the external wound. Some have talked of syringing the Fistula Sacrumalica, which is trying entirely. Others have recommended us to get a pipe bent at the end into the lower part of the Rectus & has come from the Nose, & then syringe it, and the Sac, but this appears almost impracticable.

Cataract

The Ancients thought this to be an Opaka Tilon before the Crystalline Humor, which they could press down from the Humor to the bottom of the Eye; but the Moderns have demonstrated it to be an Opacity of the Crystalline Humor itself. They used a needle to depress the Cataract, & so do we. The Opaque Crystalline is generally harder than the sound one, sometimes it is opaque & very fluid, indeed, much more so than Indurately this. The Opaque Humor hinders the Rays of light from passing thus it to the bottom of the Eye, & therefore destroys Vision. This defect is to be remedied by the operation of Couching, which is of two kinds of Extraction & Depression of the Opaque Humor. If the Eye is otherwise affected than with a Cataract, if there is a Gutta Serena as well as a Cataract, the Optic nerve is unsound as to be incapable of perceiving Light from Darknes, if the Iris don't contract, & dilate, & is adhærent to the Crystalline.

CATARACT

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Cristalline Humor, in these Cases the Patient must not be couched for after the Cataract is removed, the other Malady will remain as occasion deficit in Vision, we should therefore examine into every Circumstance before we determine upon the Operation - If one Eye is good, we should never meddle with the Cataractous Eye, for it may be hurt by means of Sympathy from the irritation produced by the operation on the other, after Couching it is a doubt, whether Vision will be bettered. If both Eyes are Cataractous, then one at least be couched even tho' the Case be not very favourable. A Cataract may be distinguished from an opacity of the Cornea by looking at the diseased Eye sideways - The Terms Sphincter & Dilatator Cataractae, now in disuse, there being no gradual change in the Crystalline Humor, we judge of the fitness of the operation, ceteris paribus, by the Obscurity of the Eye - we should expose the Eye to a bright Light, then move our hand before it, if the Patient is not sensible of the different degree of light caused by it, the operation is not to be recommended. To know if the Sphincter adheres to the diseased Crystalline Humor we must press the Eye which opens the Pupil, then opening the Eyelids if we cannot see the Iris contract, it is a Sign that it adheres to the Crystalline Humor. The Patient is to be prepared for the operation by an Antiphlogistic regimen to guard against internal inflammation of the Eye, which ought under every thing to be kept open, the Eyelids should be kept open by the fingers of the Surgeon & of an assistant; for the Speculum by pressing on the Eye Ball as well as keeping the Lids asunder has been known to press out all the Humors. We can depress the diseased body in the needle & should be thrust into the Eye a little way behind the Ciliary Process, so that we shall go thro' a little of the Vitreous Humor, but by so doing we shall more

certainly

Cataract

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certainly avoid this, than if we thrust it in a little before the Ciliary.
Because a flat pointed needle will not be so apt to pass thru the
Cay & Tallowe, without carrying it down as one that is not flattened &
It must be thrust in with the flat Surface, but w^t is forward & gather
we see it is got into the Cay & Tallowe, we must turn it upward & downw^d,
and as we must gently & late the Cay & Tallowe, & thus endeavour to carry
it down to the bottom of the Viscous Humor; if it should break we
must catch hold of it again, & thus depress every piece of it, if it should
rise up again we must prop it down again till it remains where we
would have it; then we must turn the needle & draw it out as we introduce
it, least we pull up the Cay & Tallowe again. If we extract, we
should make a wound in the Cornea just before the eye. It must be
sufficient to let the Cay & Tallowe thro', which will be to cut it nearly
half thro', the knife & should be thrust in at one side & out at the other
& then moved carefully to & fro till it cuts its way out; we must just
scratch the Capsula with the point of the knife, & then the Humor
will be easily proped out of its Capsula, which remains fixed to
the Viscous Humor, without proping out any part of the Viscous
Humor; for if we endeavour to prop out the Cay & Tallowe without
having first punctured the Capsula, it is ten to one, but that the
force necessary to do this propes the Viscous Humor out also along
with the Cay & Tallowe enclosed in its Capsula, that is to laceration,
& whether we puncture the Capsula first, or do not, it always comes out
along with the Cay & Tallowe, but remains in the eye upon the Viscous
Humor, so that it is best to puncture it. We must be careful in making
the incision, that we don't injure the eye with the slightest touch of
the instrument. Whether Extraction or Depression is the most
preferable method has not as yet been determined —

Suppanning

On Trepanning

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Trepanning is cutting out a circular piece of bone from the Skull to relieve an oppressed Brain or for young Bones a blow on the head often bends that part of the Skull, & if moderate their elasticity raises them again. In Travelling you may observe this to be frequently the case. The Bones bend & rise again like the sides of a Tin Cannister. oftentimes when the depression is very considerable, the Brain seems not to be least affected & the bone rises again, but if Symptoms of an oppressed Brain come on, the Cupan should be applied, Contusion sometime makes such a change in the Bone as to bring on an Inflammation of the Bone itself which often spreads to the Dura Mater & Brain. A Fracture when in a strait line is called a Fibula, when part of the bone is beat inwards, a Fracture with Depressions, we say there is a Concussion of the Brain, when all the common Symptoms of a Fracture are present & yet there is no fracture, on Dissection we sometimes find a great Extravasation of Blood, & sometimes no manifest change. We then say that the finer & imperceptible parts of the Brain were so disturbed as to destroy the Patient, Bleeding from the Ears, Nose & Eyes, but particularly from the Ears are common Symptoms of a Fracture. Vomiting is also a common attendant on an oppressed Brain from the remarkable Sympathy between the Stomach & Brain. A Contra-fracture sometimes happens, tho' but very seldom. Depression of the Skull that affects the Brain, Contusion of the Skull communicating its Effects inwards, Extravasation of Blood under the Skull, & Inflammation & Suppuration of the Dura Mater require the operation of the Scalp, whether there be always a Fracture or not. We must scalp as little as possible, but we should always trace a Fracture its full length by a simple incision, tho' it should run zigzag over the greatest part of the Skull; this should be done as soon as possible after the injury is received, because the Patient will not bear the cutting so well after he has recovered.

Trepanning

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recovered his senses, when the Fracture is small, & the Symptomes mild,
Surgeons flatter themselves that nothing is necessary to be done; but Pa-
tient seldom recover unless the Operation is performed. We generally
use the Tryptines since Woodalls time, who was the Inventor, & called
it so from it having three ends (two fines) in the Saw should be
Cylindrical or nearly so, because a Conical Saw must hold with the
sides, which no Workman can make a Saw do well. It should
be notched up the Sides to let the dust work out of the Groove of the
bone; The Edge should not be thick, so that will prevent our working
easily. A Surgeon should never use much force with the Elevator to
raise a depressed piece of Bone, but rather make several perforations
to loosen it first, for if we use much force upon the Elevator, we may
occasion a fresh Fracture. If any Fluid is contained under the
Dura Mater, we must cautiously puncture it with a lancet, &
Cutting thro' the Dura Mater is always dangerous. When the Skull
has been perforated, the Dura Mater often throws up a troublesome
Fungus thro' the Opening. This may be restrained by a Sinden made
of a smooth plate of Lead or any harmles Metal to the form of the
opening in the Bone, with perforations in it to let the Mallet pass
readily thro'.

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Aneurism

Lecture 86th

This is said to be of two kinds, the true & the false Aneurism; the first is a Tumor formed by arterial Blood from the dilatation of the Coat of an artery. The last is a Tumor made by arterial Blood from the Coat of an artery being cut or torn, & the Blood diffused into the neighbouring parts. Dr. Friend in his history of Physic says, that the Ancients were unacquainted with the Aneurism, but it is plain, that Agathias knew it & described it particularly. The true Aneurism happens commonly in the Arteries nearest the Heart, particularly at the Confluence of the Aortæ. The false Aneurism is of two kinds, Diffused and Circumscribed. When an artery is unoccluded, as by a lancet in bleeding & the wound bound so tight as to stop the bleeding externally, the Blood is diffused into the Cellular Membrane of the limb, making the Skin blacking the limb appears like a Blood-pudding. This Case, happened to a man after bleeding, the Cellular Membrane of the whole arm & side of the Body was filled with Blood, & the man died the next day from the great quantity of Blood, that had got out of the road of the Circulation, which was the same as tho' it had got out of his body. In this case we must not expect to feel a pulsation in the parts. The Circumscribed kind is thus formed: If strong pressure is made, upon the Wound in the artery, so as to prevent the effusion of Blood, the arm is numbed, looks livid & no Pulse is felt at the wrist, yet as the arm is warm, there are hopes that the Circulation will increase gradually thro' the anastomosing branches, and the pressure is continued in hopes of healing the artery; after some days the Ligature is removed & the wound appears quite well. But after this there will grow

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will grow up a little Circumvolute & Tumot with pulsation, & this will gradually grow bigger & bigger, because the coats of the Artery are not evoluted, but only the Cellular Membrane compacted together, which not being so strong as the coats of the artery will be made to give way, by the jutting motion of the Blood in the artery upon it, so that here is an Aneurism from the break of an artery, & a Sac made by the stretched Cellular Membrane, & the Sac will be so similar to that of a true aneurism, that we cannot distinguish one from the other, unless we know the history of the Case. There is an Aneurism of the mixed kind, the Varicose Aneurism, which is fully described in the London Medical Observations &c. The Vein has been punctured quite thro' this is bleeding at the bend of the arm, & the Lancet has at the same time opened the artery. The anterior orifice of the Vein heals up with the external wound as usual, & the posterior orifice of the Vein heals up & unites with the orifice in the artery in such a manner as that the Vein & artery have a hole of communication between them, & they so united too that the Blood cannot be effused into the Cellular Membrane, The Blood flows out of the Cavity of the artery thro' this hole of communication into the cavity of the Vein, & is by it returned to the Heart. The pulsating motion of the Blood dilates the Vein. There is in this case an external Tumor, the blood does no where coagulate as in the other Aneurism, but continues circulating. The Pulsation in this Case gives the Tumor a tremulous feel, & when the Ear is applied close to the Tumor a kind of hissing noise is heard like that of a fluid running from a large Source into a narrow channel. It has never been found necessary to perform the Operation of tying the Artery for the Varicose Aneurism, as many

have

have used laborious exercise with this Complaint for years without any disadvantage. In all Aneurisms true or false when the Artery cannot be tyed, the Case is generally incurable. Before we do the operation, we should try first the Palliative cure by profuse on the wounded Artery, & it has sometimes succeeded by consolidating the parts, & when the operation is necessary, we should keep a pulse up: on the Artery for a fortnight or three weeks before we perform it, by which means the small anastomosing branches will be dilated which are afterwards to keep up the circulation. The anastomosing branches are so numerous that the circulation will be kept up tho' the Artery be tyed very high up. Dr. Hunter is of opinion that if the femoral artery could be tyed, yet the limb would be nourished. We must never take off the limb in these cases, till we have given the ligature upon the trunk of the Artery the distal. The extremity below the ligature will be numb'd & without any pulse for some days, but it will grow gradually warmer & warmer, a pulse will increase in it, & will in the space of a month or two be nearly as good as ever. It often happens that the femoral Artery divides into two branches before it comes to the bend of the arm. In the operation we should examine into this, & we ty the both branches in our history, for the one lies close to & immediately under the other. If only one is wounded, & we ty both, we lose the great advantage that must accrue, from having one of them to carry on the circulation. If only one branch is tyed, we feel a pulsation at the wrist immediately after the operation; if it is the principal trunk that is tyed, we don't feel one for some days &c. When we proceed to the operation of tying the wounded Artery, at the bend of the arm, for instance; we apply the Tourniquet

Amputation

Scouriqued, then we make a longitudinal incision thro' the integument, in the direction of the artery, divide the fascia of the Biceps, & remove all the hemorrhous blood, & dissect down to the artery which lies generally under the skin, & the nerve lies to that side of it near the joint of the Condyle; this should be done so as not to cut this the skin if we can avoid it, tho' it is not of much consequence, when the artery is in view, bind the arm which relaxes the parts, & if we cannot then readily pass the ligature under the artery & tie it without taking up the nerve with it, Professor Morro directs us to put the end of the Probe into the wound of the artery, & raise it up, that we may the more certainly avoid tying the nerve, if we cannot readily separate the skin, it may be tied with the artery. The artery must be tied below as well as above the wounded part, or a hemorrhage will ensue; instead of tying the artery it has been recommended by the French Surgeons to lay a bit of Agaric or of sponge upon the bifurc, which I never thought should by this Slip it is quality prevent hemorrhage, and heal up the bifurc. It has never been tried in England. Mr Gambett of Newcastle recommends uniting the edges of the wound in the artery by two pins as we do in a Slave's lip, but this is such a delicate operation that it can hardly be recommended. Compression laid along the course of the upper part of the artery have been used with a view to support the ligatures, & abate the impetuous of blood against them but they seem to be quite unnecessary.

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Amputation

Lecture 87th

Within these 140 years, that is, since the discovery of the Circulation of the Blood, the Tourniquet has been invented for the ancient used no sort of compression to hinder loss of blood in the operation of amputation, & no wonder therefore that they speak of it as a very dangerous one. Sculpius gives us an account of a Surgeon at Padua particularly famous for bleeding in the Artery at the wrist, & says that the bleeding was stopped by pressing the artery against the bone. He invented an instrument to make this pressure, it was a Steel one to go round the Arm with a Screw, & Button end to be screwed down upon the artery, but we do not find that he had any Idea of a Tourniquet for Amputation. When Bonacon in France was besieged by the Spaniards in 1674 a Surgeon in the Town invented the Tourniquet, & used it upon the wounded People, there first of all, it was a Steel twisted round by two sticks, his name was Morelli, & an ancestor to a Practitioner in Surgery now in that Town of the same name. The Tourniquet was first published in 1679 by Young, a Surgeon at Plymouth, in his Curves Triumphalis, but as he uses the word Button instead of Stick, there is great reason to think that he gained the knowledge of this instrument from the French. Petit invented the Paper Tourniquet in 1718, which is the most convenient of all: till 1714 Morelli's Tourniquet was generally used as appears from Dionis, There are four Greek Authors, who have written on Amputation, for us consider (as we are a Greek). The first was Archigenes, who lived in the time of Trajan, His writings with those of Heliodorus

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Heliodus were never published till lately at Florence. He says
the Vessels leading to the part to be amputated are to be tied or cauterized
that on & some the whole part is to be bound, but don't say how, &
when they fill up, the Bone is to be put on, which is quite unintelligible,
the Skin is to be drawn up & bound where we are to cut,
then after the incision, how which is to be done, we are not told,
the Nerves are to be drawn together wth the bone & drawn thro', & if there
is bleeding, an hot iron is to be applied to the Wound. This is
his obscure Account of the Operation. Heliodus was the best;
what time he lived in we don't know. Jurnal in his death
Sister questions the Heliodus a Surgeon, but whether it is the same
is not certain. He is shot upon the operation but is dead. He says
that Amputation is more dangerous the higher it is performed on
account of the Hemorrhage, that they are foolish Folks who divide all
the flesh down to the bone at once, that he always made a proper
ligature above first, which he says is to make the Vessels wth then
he cuts down to the Bone on that side where it is least covered with
flesh, then draws the bone, & at one stroke cuts the rest of the flesh &
vessels in it, and immediately applies the hot iron. Below is
the next, he tells us that he cuts down to the bone in one part having
drawn up the Skin, then drew up the flesh, cut thro' the Bone, &
sawly divided all the rest, but we don't find that he used any previous
ligature, & Paulus Aeginetta is the fourth, he says that as drawing
the bone took up a considerable space of time, the Hemorrhage was
almost always fatal; He tells us that One Leonidas cuts down to
the Bone first on the part where the most, and the largest Vessels do
not lie,

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not lie, then saws the bone, cuts this all the way at once where the Viperillo lies, and applies the hot iron directly to stop the bleeding, which is the very same way that Hippocrates did it in ¹. It does not appear plainly, that any one of these knew any thing of a Tourniquet, and if any one before them had used any instrument of this kind they certainly must have known it, as Albuscius recom- mends cutting off Limbs at the joint of the Elbow, and of the Knee, only, which shew that he was but an indifferent Surgeon. Under the head of Amputation, Authors generally treat first of Mortification. One kind of Mortification happens to Old People, the cause generally is, that in their Constitutions, it produces its effects so as to make the Disease go on after one part has been already cut off to prevent its spreading; such cases almost always prove fatal, another kind very different from the former happens in Young People, from internal causes. This is frequently cured, therefore we should never give up a case of this kind. In both these cases the Bark is the best remedy, & should be given in large & often repeated Doses, another kind is that proceeding from Cold, this generally takes place in the Extremities of the body, and as it is not Constitutional it easily stopped. Another kind of Mortification is said to arise from the Compression of a principal artery, but this can very rarely be the case, because of the numerous anastomoses of arteries off a part is laid so that the circulation is entirely put a stop to, it mortifies a man died of an aneurism of the upper part of the Brachial,

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Brachial Artery, & upon examining the Brilla it was found, that the poult had pressed upon the limb so as to occasion the degeneration into an impervious Ligament no low down as the bend of the Arm, and this the artery was here completely pressed upon, yet the circulation continued thro' the limb just as well, as ever, Great Contusions sometimes produce a Mortification, from the bad Fever attending them, sometimes from the part being rendered totally unfit for carrying on the circulation, when a Mortification is local, for instance when it is owing to cold, we may determine immediately upon Amputation, yet no one would think of performing it, till a beginning Inflammation &c, Suppuration & now how far the part is dead, If there is reason to suspect the cause is Constitutionally, we should wait till the Mortification is fairly & fully stopped before we amputate, If a limb is crushed we cut it off, because we judge that it will Mortify, - Some accidents however have done well surprisingly, so that we should never be too fond of this operation, Amputation is also performed for some Diseases, which appear otherwise to be incurable

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Amputation.

Lecture 88

In Amputating the Rule is, to preserve as much of the Body as possible, but in Amputating a Finger or a Toe we do not adhere to this rule, for in the disease where it is well, we cut off the Finger or Toe at the Joint. One objection to cutting off Limbs at the joint is, that the Bone is then very broad, and necessarily to be covered by the Skin, and another objection is that Cartilages & ligamentous parts are apt to inflame, slough, & not granulate kindly. There being as much Flesh at the Joints of the Fingers as at the Intervenes, and the Bone not being very broad there in proportion to what it is at the Intervenes, is the reason why Surgeons adhere to the practice of Amputating the Fingers and Toes at the Joints in. When we cut off a Finger, the Radial & Ulnar Arteries may be compressed by the Fingers of an Assistant to avoid a Spur of Blood that might obscure the operation, or we may compress them by a Roller, & two compresses. The Radial runs along the fore part of the Radius near the Wrist, the Ulnar runs close on the inner side of the Pisiform Bone towards the Palor of the Hand. A little skin should be saved: when we have cut the Capsular Ligament, before and behind, still we find the Finger don't disjoint, but if we feel for the joint on the side with our nail & cut the Lateral Ligament, it immediately disjoint. There will be only a little Spurting Artery on each of the Fingers that will hardly require the needle. If the Fleecy tendon should start out, it must be cut off with a knife or Scissors. In cutting

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In cutting off the Finger at the Metacarpal Bone, we cut down on each side, & saw the Bone thro', & here there will be a necessity for the needle. The Amputating Knife should be strait & not crooked. The Teeth of the Saw should be very small. The Coffer should be small & strait. To take off the left arm we should stand before the Patient, if the right, behind the Patient, because with the left hand we draw the flesh above the Saw; if we stood vice versa, an Assistant must draw it up, & we could not saw so close as to his hand as our own. In amputating a Limb there is no need for laying a Tape round to direct the knife. If the Skin is shrivelled & loose, we may put a Roller round it a little below, where we are to cut to keep the Skin firm, so that it may not recede from the Knife, & this appears to be the only purpose the Tape can serve. When we amputate the Fore arm, we cut thro' the Skin & Collected Membrane at two Places, then draw them up, divide all the flesh down to the Bone, divide the Interosseous parts, & saw the Bone. If the Leg is taken off just above the Ankle, the remaining part of the Leg will be always contused, because the Extensor Muscles being rendered useless will shrink. We make the same Incision when we amputate the Arm as we do the Fore arm, & the Operation on the lower Extremities exactly corresponds with that on the upper Extremities. Colles's Operation for the Upper & lower Extremity, especially where it has only a single bone, appears to be a much better one than ours. The Skin & flesh were first drawn up by an incision made thro' them down to the bone, then the Superficial Muscles were drawn up from those fixed to the bone, & then last cut this to the bone as high as

the place

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The place to which the Superficial ones are drawn up, as the bone was drawn
thick even with the parts last divided, so that when the Muscles & Skin
were pulled down again, the bone was considerably below this surface
as they made a thick cushion when the Stump healed. The Slap Operation
was invented by Young, Surgeon at Plymouth and published in 1617
along with the Tourniquet in his Curves Triumphales. In 1691. Dr. Dean
recommended this operation. It was designed for the leg principally
but it came into disuse. Dr. Dean seemed to have a good opinion of
it. It has been practised lately in England by Dr. White of Manchester,
as Mr. Broomfield in London, but whether it is better than the common
method of Amputation we don't know. Mr. John Hunter thinks it may
do for one whose way of life will not call him to stand or walk much,
as that the common Stump is better to them who walk or stand a
good deal in their business. It was found that the Slap would not
always unite with the Stump, but Dr. White says, if the Wound is
dressed loosely, & after the suppuration of the Slap, the Stump is firmly
established & the Granulation begins, then if the Slap is laid over the
Stump they will always unite. The Amputation of the arm at the
Shoulder according to Dr. Dean over its junction to his Father, but
it is plain that Morang's Father was the author of it. They used to
begin the operation by running a large needle under all the muscles
at the Axilla close to the Bone, & tie all these with a ligature to secure
the artery. Mr. Broomfield's method of doing this operation is tiresome,
painful, & horribly inseparable the present usual method laid
down by Dr. Sharpey. Dr. Hunter was the first who recommended pressure
to be made on the artery, where it passes over the first rib to answer
the same purpose as the Tourniquet does in other Amputations;
this however is not absolutely necessary, for Dr. Wood says, that when
he performed

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he performed the operation at Bristol, he cut the Artery, but he could
immediately lay hold of it & stop the Bleeding & he cut thro' the Skin &
Cellular Membrane at the fore part of the Thigh, first towards the
axilla, then fell for the Artery & divide the fore part of the Deltoid Muscle,
the Tendon of the Rectus, the short head of the Biceps & the Coraco-
Brachialis, & tie the Artery along with the Vein, then cut thro' all the rest
quite to the joint, by putting the arm close down to the side of the body
we easily cut thro' the capsular ligament at the top of the joint, & then
the rest is done professedly, this should be done so as to leave skin &
flesh enough to cover the Amputation Scapularis. The Axillary Vessels
lie between the united insertion of the latissimus Dorsi & Corv Major
behind, & the Biceps & Coraco Brachialis before. In Tying the
Vessels, some take up a considerable quantity of flesh, others tie only
the bare Artery. It is best to tie but little flesh along with it.
The Suture in two or three days after the operation often becomes
loose, & from this cause a Secondary Bleeding has happened, which
the best small perhaps only a few ounces, has occasioned a fatal
fainting. This is more likely to happen when much flesh has
been tied along with the Artery. They who are fond of tying the flesh
with the Artery say, that if the Artery is tied alone, it is apt to be
cut thro' by the Suture, or to have the ligature slip off. The ligature
should only be tied moderately tight, for if it is drawn very tight, the
perhaps the Artery is not divided, it often happens that the thick
Muscular Coat is pinched thro', & the Artery Adheres only by its inner
Coat, & the Cellular Membrane on the outside of the Artery, so that in
this case it happens, that in a few days after the operation, a Tumor is
seen just at that part of the Stump where the Artery lies, which has a
pulsation: This is an aneurism of the end of the Artery for the strong
Coat being divided, the inner is dilated and at every pulsation by degrees
and makes a growth, so that it will be necessary to tie the Artery again
above

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above the dilated part, which will be now attended with some difficulty on account of the Artery having shrunk; or perhaps the Artery is quite cut this, then the Cellular Membrane will give way & form the Pouche. This accident is not so likely to happen in Young as in Old People. A young Artery is not so easily crushed, on account of its muscular Coat being more fibrous & tough in its texture. Mr Broomfield's Hook to draw out an artery to be tied is a very good Instrument, particularly when an Artery bleeds at the bottom of a deep Wound, as on the side of the Prostate Gland in the Operation for the Stone, and tying the Artery alone: when drawn out it gives but little less pain than tying it with the flesh as done by the Gutterer. It answers very well in Theory, but as it is said that if the flesh is not tied with the Artery, it is apt to cut this, it remains a doubt whether it is so well in Practice. The tying the artery along with the flesh, & other moveable parts gives more pain than any other part of the Operation whatever. By tying the Artery alone in Mr Broomfield's way the pain is infinitely less. A Surgeon at St George's Hospital tied an Artery in a Pump according to Mr Broomfield's way, & the Patient bled to Death; but then a dispute arose whether it was the Artery that was tied which bled from the Ligature slipping off from it, or from it being cut this, or whether it was an artery that had not been tied, for it frequently happens that an artery will bleed sometime after the Operation, which did not bleed during the time of it. Tying the Vessels was used previous to the invention of the Baudracket, for we find that Ambrose knew this method of stopping bleeding by Ligatures.

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The Gravid Uterus

Lecture 89th

To take a View of the Gravid Uterus in a general way we shall consider it as it appears towards the latter end of Pregnancy that is in the ninth Month — Its size is very different in different Women & in the same Woman at different Times — There is such Variety in the Birth of the Fetus & in the quantity of Water, that this cannot be accounted for. The Uterus occupies all the Space between the Ribs, its Extent rises up as high in the Cavity of the Abdomen (generally speaking) as Midway between the Ribs & Scapulae Corpis, but as this must vary in tall & short Women, we cannot say exactly where it comes up to, in the former it must be lower, in the latter it must be higher considering the Uterus in both to be of equal Dimensions — In Crooked little Women it often projects the Cartilage of the Ribs — outwardly, if we strike the Abdomen of a Woman that is Pregnant upon the fore part of the Distended Uterus, the Sound is as if we had struck upon the high or any other fleshy part; if we strike on the sides of the Uterus, the Sound is hollow as if we had struck a bladder filled with air, for on the forepart there is nothing between it & the containing parts of the Abdomen, but on the sides the partitions lie between it and the Peritoneum these signs afford certain proofs of a Woman's being with Child, but if by laying one hand upon the Abdomen we can feel the Child more strongly in Utero, we cannot be mistaken. The forepart of the Uterus lies in contact with the Peritoneum, so that in the cesarian Section we can hardly cut or wound the Visera of the Abdomen or any part exterior. The Epitropon will sometimes, tho' very rarely, descend before the Uterus, but this cannot be the case with the Intestines, because they are tied behind to the mesentery & the substance of the Epitropon being mostly fat is therefore specifically lighter than the body of

The Gravid Uterus

body of the Uterus, seems to be the reason why it always rises above
 it. A woman is seldom equally big on each side. In most Women
 the Child with the greatest part of the Uterus lies towards the right
 side, & the reason of this difference is, that as the Uterus distends
 & rises up from the Pelvis, it finds more ease in lying on one side of
 the projecting Spine, Women in the last Months of Pregnancy
 are often troubled with numbness & cramps in one particular
 Leg & Thigh, and this we always find is on that side which is largest
 in respect to the Abdomen, and is most probably occasioned by
 the Uterus pressing on the Nerves of that Limb. It has been a question,
 whether this oblique position of the Uterus might not be sometimes
 so great as to occasion a difficult Labour by throwing the Mouth of
 the Uterus out of its natural position. The idea was absurd, for
 enough of the Uterus will always remain in the Cavity of the Pelvis
 to preserve the Os Sirea. in its natural Situation. The Paries
 of the Abdomen of Women in their first Pregnancy are lighter than
 if they had had a Child before, the Uterus therefore instead of projecting
 so much sideways, as it does in future Pregnancies is turned upward,
 into the Cavity of the Abdomen considerably high, the Stays hurt
 them exceedingly about the pit of the Stomach, & they are obliged
 to wear a Waistcoat, and in tall Women the prominen^{ce} of the Belly
 will be so little, that we very often do not think they are with Child,
 while at the same time they are ready to lie in ventre, we examine
 them in a Woman who has had a Child, has her Hair, Muscles &
 other parts of the Abdomen much looser than before, & in advanced
 Pregnancy they are often so loose, & the Uterus projects so much
 from not being braced up, that it hangs over the Pelvis as it were,
 we say the Belly is pendulous. In this Case the Uterus does not
 rise

The Gravid Uterus

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rise near so high up; this oblique position of the Uterus from its bending over the Pubis dont seem to occasion any difficulty in Labour, nor does the obliquity when it falls to one side, & the Shape of the Gravid Uterus is oviform, its lower end may be compared to the small end of an Egg. It does not take this shape, from internal distension, as has been supposed, it grows of itself for if it enlarged by its being pressed out by the increase of its contents, it would then be more tense in proportion as it is more distended. A Person's Skin is not stretched by the growth of the other parts of the body, but it grows, & is as loose in an adult state as it was in the state of Childhood, after this manner exactly the Uterus increases, as distends itself, and is always loose & unstretched, and might with a great deal, of have hold much more, than it does. It dont make a regular bag, but is continually varying its figure from the neighbouring parts in the different positions of the body, & also from the pressure of its contents. By the hand moved upon the abdomen we can generally feel great inequalities on its surface from the projection of the Liver, Head, Ubow, &c of the Fetus. Albinius's Figure of the Impregnated Uterus is false, because he has drawn it of an exact oval figure, the intestines are all carried up to the upper part of the abdomen by the Fundus Uteri, & lie principally on the left side, the Liver fills the right side of the cavity above the Fundus. The Blood Vessels of the Uterus are the Spermatic Vessels going in above, & the Hypogastric Vessels going in below. The two sets of Arteries anastomose freely, & so do the Veins, & on Utero: gestation they enlarge exceedingly, the arteries becoming tortuous, but the Veins do not, the large Vein especially toward the Cervix are called the Sinuses of the Uterus. It is generally believed that these vessels

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The Gravid Uterus

Vessels are the largest at the back part of the Uterus, but this is not always true; they are always largest at that part to which the Placenta chances to be fixed, whether it be fixed on the inside of the fundus, or of the back part, or of the side, or high up, or low down. When we examine the outer surface of an Uterus impregnated & find in any part large swelling Vessels, we may be certain that the Placenta is fixed immediately on the inside of that part, from this we know exactly how it lies. As the Uterus grows it has been said that it grows thinner, others have said that it grows thicker. It grows rather thicker upon the whole, and the flesh of it is softer when impregnated than when unimpregnated, but the thickness in one Woman is often much greater than in another. We cannot ^{trace} the muscular fibres distinctly except at the inside, where they appear pretty plainly after the Decidua is scraped off. They are always disposed in circles round the two orifices of the Fallopian Tubes as their Center, and the outer Circle of the two directions of fibres meet as Tangent to one another at the middle between the two Orifices. Where the Placenta adhens, the inner Surface of the Uterus is exactly like the outer surface of the Placenta, & the inner surface of the Uterus where the Membranes adhere is exactly the same as the outer surface of the Membranes.

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The Gravid Uterus Lect ure 9th

The Uterus when it lies against the Pubis is guided by these bones, above this it swells out, below it is contracted into a point, and is terminated by the Os Sincus, which makes the Orifice leading into the Vagina, and the Os Sincus always projects a little way into the Vagina, The Fundus Uteri only contains the Child till a very little time before delivery, when the Os Sincus is examined just before Labour it appears more like a ridge than a pipe, it is said that the Cervix is dilated gradually into the Fundus, but this occurs only to happen very late, The Cervix is blocked up by a firm jelly, which came out of little cavities like so many small pores had holes to the Riga, & it is much firmer in the first Month than afterward, at the time of Birth the Os Sincus dilates, the Orifice enlarges & this jelly goes away, It is commonly said that the Orifice of the womb is closed, when a Woman is with Child, but it is not closed, for generally speaking we can get the point of our fingers a little way within the Orifice, There are no means which can make a Woman miscarry, that will not stand as good a chance of killing as of bringing about Abortion, In my opinion we have no particular power over the Uterus, but only act on it as they affect the Constitution in general, Bleeding frequently in large quantities with strong purges often repeated have sometimes procured Abortion in Patients of delicate Constitution by coagulating them, as for running any thing up the Orifice of the Uterus, & breaking the Membranes so as to let out the Water, which undoubtedly will procure miscarriage, it will as easily go thro' the substance of the Uterus as thro' the firm jelly which closes it, They Lamella of the Endoneum which are the broad Ligaments of the Uterus, always disappears in Utero Gestation, for the Uterus as it swells out unfolds the lateral folds of the Endoneum, which makes these Ligaments —

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Ligament, and takes them for to cover it, so that what is at another time, the broad Ligament is now the lateral Pecten or covering of the Uterus, & the Fallopian Tubes are drawn down close to the Uterus. In the ovarium of a Woman that is pregnant or that has been lately delivered there is a little yellow fleshy body called the Corpus luteum, it has in the middle either a white cavity, or a little white Glandular looking body, which is very vascular; its Circumference is not round, but is as it were, scalloped, its Surface is a number of processes. When a Woman has lately conceived, that part of the Ovarium where the Corpus luteum would be is exceedingly vascular compared to the other parts of it. The Content of the Uterus are the Fretes, the liquor Amni or Water of the Secundines, and the Secundines consist of the Navel String, the Placenta, & the Membranes. The Navel String comes from the Placenta, the Membranes come off the edge of the Placenta, & make with it a compleat bag round the inside of the Uterus without any perforation in it. This bag breaks in the time of Birth at that part which lies over the Orifice of the Uterus. The Child being acted upon by the pains of Labour breaks the Membrane, the Water comes thro' this break; when the Head follows, the Navel String is dragged out by the Child, let the Placenta be fixed to whatever part of the Uterus it will, the rupture of the Membrane will always happen at the orifice of the Uterus, so that by looking upon the rupture in the Membrane that came away with the rest of the Secundines, we can always tell how high up the Placenta was fixed to the Uterus, for example, if the Placenta was fixed to the Fundus Uteri then the sides of the Membrane measuring from the Placenta to the ruptured part are of an equal length & the Secundines are of a particular Organization seeming quite different from a fibrous texture, they are a temporary substance of a gelatinous appearance, made to live for 9 months only. The whole Secundines do not contain a single Globule of Oil. Nurses commonly call a white Placenta a fat one.

The Navel

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The Navel String is made up of two arteries of one vein more or less twisted round each other, & is of different length, from a foot to a yard. The arteries are a continuation of the trunks of the inner gliae, sometimes only one artery is found in the string; and of one artery in this case that Dr Hunter had an opportunity of examining, by dissection he found that it came from one inner gliae only, in others perhaps it is owing to the anastomosis of the two arteries at the navel, some strings are twisted very much, most of them are twisted irregularly. The end next the Placenta is twisted pretty regularly, the other end next the Child is twisted more irregularly, so that we can commonly tell what part each end belongs to, after the string is cut off from the Placenta, the Child. Some again are hardly twisted at all, the short navel string is sometimes supposed to cause a difficult labour, by hindering the passage of the Child, it is an exceeding rare case. The same thing may be said to the opinion of difficulty being occasioned by the string being twisted round the Child's neck, or any other part of the Child so as to shorten it, it is covered by a smooth coat externally, a production of the membranes. The arteries & vein instead of being connected together by cellular membrane have a white gelatinous substance between them. This jelly feels very soppy tough & slimy, it may be dissolved in water, & then the string will lose considerably of its bulk, so that when we tie the navel string, we should tie hard, particularly if it is a thick one, for the arteries being defended by this jelly will not be sufficiently compressed by slight tying & we should always tie it with a broad ligature to the cushioning of the coat, the jelly gives the string a considerable strength, but its chief use seems to be to prevent the vessels being compressed, for if the circulation is stopped thro' the string the Child must die, & perhaps compression

The Gravid Utensil

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Comprehension of the Vessels of the String is the Cause of Death to many
stillborn Children, which we can't otherwise account for. Generally speaking,
the String don't go to the Middle of the Placenta, but rather to one
side, & when it gets there the Vessels branch thro' it in the two Ateries
run the whole length of the String without winding off a single branch,
but just as they enter the Placenta, they always anastomose with each
other. In extraordinary cases the Travel String will sometimes lead
on to the Membranes, but then the Vessels all run to the Placenta, when we
cut the Travel String, we commonly leave an inch or an inch & half. with
the body of the Child. The Shape of the Placenta is very various, it is thick
lest at the Middle, the outer surface is concave, answering the concavity
of the Uterus, its inner surface is gently concave, the inner Surface is
smoothed by the Membranes continued over it, the outer Surface is
uneven marked by Fissures, which divide into portions like the Lobuli
of the Brain, these furrows are not deep unless made so by force, used
in bringing away the Placenta from the Uterus. There is always a ves-
sicle Travel String to every Placenta whether there be two or more, some-
times the Placenta of each is united to the other edgewise, at other times
they are found to be situated a good distance. It is however, then hap-
pens that a Placenta has a little lobe fixed to it, the greater part of
the substance of the Placenta, is made up of branches of the 2 Ateries
the Vein of the Travel String; this we call the fatal part of the Placenta,
in opposition to the maternal part of it which is made by the Vessels
from the Mother. It is a common opinion that the Placenta throw its
Blood to the Mother by the Ateries, & receives Blood back from the Mother
by the Vein, but all the Vessels of the Travel String terminate in the
Placenta, as if we, least the Scavengers from Blood immediately after
they come,

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They come away, by putting them in water & milking the String, &c
can injest the Placenta very minuteley from the String, & none of the
Projection will escape, which would not be the Case, if the Vessels of the
Child were continuations of the Vessels of the Mother, & the branches
of the Arties & Vessels are & have been very numerous in the Placenta,
so that by injecting the Artery from the String, the Blood very readily
returns by the Vein, and by injecting the Vein it very readily returns by
the Artery, no part of the body appears more vascular than the
Placenta. The Membranes are three, first the Amnion or Amnion
beginning from the Child & proceeding sideways to the Uterus; Second
the Chorion; Third the Decidua, informally called the false or Sprongy Chorion.
The inner membrane of Amnion in a human Subject is uniformly
clear, & without any appearance of vessels, or organization, it is
like a Film of jelly; its outer surface is covered with a jelly by which
it adheres uniformly to the Chorion on the outside of it, but so loosely
that it is easily separated from that membrane, this membrane
adheres to the Navel String, but so firmly that it can't be separated
so that it makes a complete Bag, & the Water can touch nothing
but the Cuticle of the Child & the Amnion; via the Cuticle of Amnion
seem like a continuation of each other, tho' then it is very firm &
will resist being broken more than the others, & it is perfectly trans-
parent every where. The Chorion has been divided into two
Lamelle, an inner & an outer, the inner called the clear, the outer the
Sprongy Chorion, but we rather choose to call the inner Lamella the
Epionion, & the outer Lamella the Decidua, the former is pretty firm,
the latter is very tender, the Chorion covers all the outer surface of the

Amnion

The Gravid Uterus

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amnios, lines the inner surface of the Decidua, as far as the edge of the Placenta, & then is continued over the inner surface of the Placenta, & thence to the Navel String, it is inseparably united every where with the Placenta. In general it is very thin, but as it approaches the Placenta, it grows thicker, & upon that it is pretty thick. The Decidua called by others the false or Spongy Chorion is opaque, & very much of the consistence of a Card, it peels off from the Uterus, so as to have a rough surface; it is connected to the Chorion by little threads, the remains of Vessels, which are seen to be torn this in separating the one membrane from the other. It parts from the Chorion at the edge of the Placenta, & is extended over the external surface of the Placenta, so as to give it a surface not filled with Vessels, as its substance is. It has its vessels from the Navel String, but it has vessels from the Womb, & is properly an inner Lamella from the Womb. These Vessels are plainly to be seen upon the Membrane, immediately after the coming away of the Secundines, especially if the Woman was delivered before her time, the Uterus furnishes a fresh Decidua, very soon it is impregnated which peels off at Birth & makes part of the Secundines, & at the next pregnancy another is furnished, the subjoining & reproduction of this Membrane is the reason of our calling it Decidua. It is an efflorescence from the Uterus to this Membrane, if we spread it on a piece of paper immediately after it comes away from the Uterus, & hold it before the fire to dry it with the Blood in the Vessels. The late Professor Monro would not allow that it received vessels from the Uterus, but it certainly does.

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The Gravid Uterus

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Lecture 91

Many Quadrupeds have only one Placenta, & most of a round figure as is the Rabbit; others have a Placenta, like a Belt, which surrounds the Fetus, & its Membranes, as the Dog & Cat; others have perhaps 70 or 80 Placentas, or Placentulas, as in Cows; the Placenta in a Cow is plainly of two kinds; there is a strong one grows up from the Uterus with a number of cavities in it; there is another one which is the Fatal, part of the Placenta, & the Vessels of this part are inserted into these cavities. The Vessels of the one part are intermixed with the Vessels of the other, but not united, for one set may be exceedingly minutely injected without any of the injection entering the other set. The Purposes of the Fatal part are, the Vessels come out of these cavities at Birth, the Fatal Placenta separates from the Uterine Placenta, & comes away; the Uterine Placenta or Fungus is left behind sticking to the Uterus, & gradually whants away, which Fungus is removed when the Cow is with Calf again, so it is generally in all the Ruminants, in the Animals it is plain that the Placenta is double, made up of two parts, Uterine & Fatal, from this circumstance Hunter concluded that it is so in the Human Placenta, - The Placenta is very spongy, it may be blown up by means of a Pipe thrust into it, as the air will escape by a thousand Orifices, each of these Orifices is the mouth of a Vein, coming from the Uterus, it has also a number of uncoloured Arteries running on its surfaces; the fact is a great number of Arteries & Veins enter the Placenta from the Uterus, & soon terminate in the spongy substance, and the Veins take up the Blood & return it again to the Mother. Some have thought that there is an Ablation in the Human Subject as well as in Quadrupeds; in the Cow this is particularly evident, it is

The Gravid Uterus

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A Bag in the Uterus for containing the Urine of the Fetus, or Calf, from
which goes a Pipe along the Navel String, which enters at theavel, &
goes to the Bladder of the Calf, the Bag is called the Amnion, the Pipe
is called the Utricle, but there is neither Amnion nor Utricle in the
Human Subject. The Contents of the Second Dines are the Digest of Amnion
& the Fetus, the quantity of the Digest Amnion is very different in different
Women, sometimes there is not more than three pints, at other times
there are many Leaks. In Labour it sometimes happens that the
Membranes are protruded out at the Vagina unbroken, if in this Case we
scratch the Membranes, & let the Digest out, we generally find a Leak
which is a Proof that it is not always foul towards the end of Gestation,
as some have supposed, sometimes indeed it is foul, which
perhaps is owing to a little of the Amnion being pressed from the
Retention of the Fetus, & tinging it blackish & greenish, for the Amnion
is of a black or green colour, & if the Child is dead especially it is very
apt to escape from the Placenta, the Digest is like Water not Corpse, it
is very saline, & the Salt it contains is the true Sea Salt. The principal
use of this Liqueur seems to be to keep the Uterus out from the Fetus
& prevent its being destroyed, for a blow upon the Uterus will on this
account have no Effect upon the Fetus, no more than a Cork will be
affected by a blow given to a leatheren Bottle, which contains a Cork,
& is filled with water, it seems likewise to have some effect in keeping
the Membranes, & the Placenta, adhering to the Uterus, by preparing them
against it, some have supposed that it serves for the nourishment
of the Fetus, & that it has the properties of the Serum of the Blood, or
the white of an Egg, but it does not serve that purpose, neither has it
those properties, for it remains as fluid as ever after it has been exposed
to a boiling heat, & had Coagulant mixt with it in at the time of
Labour

The Gravid Uterus

Labour, the Placenta is united with the Uterus, & when the Child is born, the Travell String is to be cut, when it is cut, if a ligature is not made upon it near the Child, the Child will bleed to death, or lose a great quantity of Blood, but there is no occasion for making a ligature on the side next the Mother, there is no danger of the Womans bleeding to death, for the Blood passes from the Uterus to the Travell String, the small quantity of Blood which comes out, is only what the Placenta contains, & is pressed out of it by the contraction of the Uterus, we commonly make a ligature near the Mother for the sake of Cleanliness, this it is better not to do, for by leaving the Sphynx open for discharging the Blood from the Placenta, so that is pressed on by the contracting Uterus its bulk will be diminished & it will afterwards pass more easily thro the Vagina, & so may prevent the Blood from the Uterus dawning the Bed Cloths by wrapping the end of it in a Cloth. The reason why a Quadruped dont bleed at Birth is that the Arteries of the Travell String are torn this, & therefore dont bleed, as the Arteries of the Miller's Arm did not bleed when they were torn tho by the Drills, and an Artery which is bruised will not bleed, for which reason Dr. Arnaud recommends, bruising the pulmonary Artery instead of tying it in Operation, Dr. Hunter once attended a birth that passed, & saw that she tickled up the Waters immediately after they came from it, & when a Puppy was born, she tore thro the Travell String at some distance from the Travell, & swallowed the Secundians with great eagerness, but there was no bleeding from the Puppy, but cut off the Travell String from one Puppy, & the Blood spouted from it, but the Bitch turned round & immediately as she saw this, she bruised the end with her Teeth, & the Blood directly stopped. To know whether tearing the Travell String of a Child this would have the same effect, Dr. Hunter & Dr. Inactuary did as follows, as soon as a Child was born, & the Placenta still adhering to the Uterus, they tore the String this, at some distance,

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distance from the Hasel, & no Blood come, then after being perfectly satisfied they made the Ligature at the usual place, & cut off the long piece of Travell String. The instant that the Placenta separates from the Uterus, the Vipolls of the Uterus will bleed generally, after birth, this separation happens gradually, the Uterus contracts, the Bleeding is not considerable, then never can be any considerable separation of the Placenta, without an Hemorrhage, hence uterine hemorrhages during the time of Gestation, are to be feared. Sometimes the Placenta happens to adhere immediately over the Os Sincex, so that opens, of course a part is separated, whilst the Fates within prevent the Uterus from contracting and stopping these Vipolls. Such labours are always dangerous and attended with great bleedings. The size of the Fates at nine months is different in different births, commonly its weight is exaggerated. By weighing a great number of Children born at the full time in Bowmire Street Hospital, Dr Newbold, Dr Macaulay found that they weighed generally from six to eight pounds, the largest weighed 11 pounds, 2 ounces, the smallest about four pounds weight. The Fates in the Uterus, is brought into as small a compass as possible, the Arms and legs are more or less bent in a variety of ways, so as to fill up the cavity between the Head, & the Breast; the general and most natural position is with the Head downwards, the back to one side (commonly the right side) the Lateral sides of the body are backwards and forwards, or perhaps the Back and Belly are rather obliquely situated, than directly from side to side. The common opinion was that the Head of the Child, in the first 7 or 8 months of Pregnancy was upwards, and that in the latter months, it shifts its position by turning downwards, to

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prepar for birth, this may perhaps be the case sometimes, but the most natural position is with the Head always downward, If we examine a woman standing about the 6th month, we can feel that this is a fact, for with the Fingers we can raise the Head up along with the rest of the body in the Waters, and it will again sink down as it was before, the reason why the Head naturally is downwards is this, the lower part of the Uterus is the most depending, even when the woman lies on her Back, and the Child being specifically heavier than the Liquor Amniæ, it will sink into it with its Head downwards too, because that is the heaviest part of the Child: In the first months when the Fetus is very small, & the quantity of Liquor great, then it floats about in every direction, but as it increases in bulk, the Water diminishes till at length it becomes too large to move about, and is locked by the Uterus in the position already described, 'tis exceeding rare that a Child can turn in Utter, in the last Months. This seems to be the reason, why a Child is sometimes born with the Foot bent up against the forepart of the Leg, or clubbed as it is called, from its having been long locked in that position. In such cases the Limbs were originally well formed, and therefore we can often reduce them by degrees to their natural state, by bending them in their proper position, sometimes the Head is not downwards, this may happen from the Child starting, and kicking, when it had but just room to move so as to alter its position from the most natural, & then to be locked in that position. If we throw a Fetus of 7 or 8 months into a pool of Water in any position, the Head will always get to

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got to the bottom, first because the lower Extremities having a larger surface in proportion to their bulk, than the Head are specifically lighter. If the Fetus lies in the most compact form, and its Head downward, how does the whole correspond with the Cavity of the Uterus? Now the Fetus measures more from before to behind, than it does from side to side, and the Uterus measures most from side to side, it lies with its Back to one side of the Uterus, and its Belly and Knees to the other, and as it cannot easily lie on the spine, it lies rather more to one side of the Uterus, than to the other, this is its most natural position, but as the Child passes thru the external organs in Birth, it turns to adapt itself to the Vulva, by coming into the world with the Occiput against the Pubis, and the Face downward toward the Perineum, which is the constant position of the Head, at the most natural Birth.

The FATES

Lecture, 92

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The Cuticle of the Child is projected on the Trachea, & where it ends the gelatinous Substance begins; at this part the Trachea always drops, & the Thymus of the Fates is large & divided into two lobes, it hangs down in the cavity of the Chest before the large Vessels, & Pericardium; after the Birth it degenerates into a tough Ligamentaceous Substance, in a Child it is called the Throat swartland, whose use is not at all known. The Lungs that have never received Air into them are a firm, & heavy Mass, like a piece of flesh in any other part of the body, & will sink as readily in Water; we are often called upon to give our opinion in Cases where a Woman is suspected of having smothered her Child that is newly born, we cut off a piece of the Lungs & throw it into Water, if it sinks, we generally conclude that the Child was born alive & has breathed, if it sinks we conclude that it was born dead, & therefore never has breathed, we must not take upon us to say that a Child has breathed, because that we find the Lungs will swim, for if this Child has been dead any length of time especially in hot Weather, Putrefaction may have come on, & let loose the first Air into the cellular Substance of the Lungs, & thereby cause them to swim in the same manner as we see a dead Dog that has lain in Water some days, review on its surface, & if the Child has lain dead sometime in one position, the depending part of the Lungs will be filled with the watery Juices, & the Air being specifically lighter will be pressed upward by them, so that below the Lungs will contain Water, & above they will contain Air, if a bit of the depending part is cut off, & thrown into Water it will sink tho' the Child

The Fetus

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Child has breathed, & the Substance of the lungs & one part may be condensed from Inflammation & so to contract in Water, so that it is not in our power to say certainly that a Child was born alive from examining the lungs, & finding that they will expire, or that the Child was born dead, because a part of them at least will not expire. We should be very cautious therefore in what we say, & were it only in pity to the unhappy Woman should always favour her, besides it is a very common thing when a Child is born dead, for somebody to blow down the Throat by the Mouth to endeavour to revive it, & the Air they thus force into the lungs will distend them & have the same effect upon them as if they had breathed. The upper parts of the Child are much larger in proportion than the lower Extremities, which are not only small in proportion to the Head, but also to the Throat, & upper Extremities. The Pelvis is small at birth, hardly any part of the Bladder is so low as the Os Pubis, but it is considerably above it, & makes the Angle of reflection of the Utriculum a great way higher than the bone. The Uterus is principally above the Pelvis, & there is no part of the intestines within the Pelvis, but as we grow up the Pelvis grows larger, & then the Abdominal Contents, and those of the Pelvis fall lower down. The Blood dont circulate thro' the lungs as it does in an Adult, but it passes from the Pulmonary Artery into the Aorta by the Canalis arteriosus, which is a Canal of communication between the Pulmonary Artery, & the beginning of the Aorta Descendens. When the Blood circulates thro' the lungs after Birth, this Canal becomes useless & dries up. From the Bladder to the Utrus there goes a ligament which is supposed to be the ligamentous

The Fetus

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the Ligamentous remains of the Brachia, become impervious, as in the Calf, & other Quadrupeds, but there is never any the least appearance of an Utrachea in the Human ^{status} Subject, neither in its early nor its advanced state. The Aorta divides into two, the internal & the external Arteries, the external which is the smaller is a Truncus goes thro' the Groin or to the Thigh as in the Adult. The internal gives off a few small branches in the Pelvis, but the principal Trunk goes out at the Navel, & constitutes the Umbilical Artery. These Arteries after Birth become impervious from the Navel as far as where they give off the branches to the Pelvis, & degenerate into Ligaments. The Canalis arteriosus, & the elongation of the internal Arteries into the Umbilical, make the peculiarity in the Arterial System of the Fetus. The Venal System has a peculiarity there is a Vein going from the Liver out at the Navel, which forms the Umbilical Vein of the Navel String; from the Navel the Umbilical Vein goes up to the Spleen in the Liver along the edge of the Falciform Ligament, where it unites & makes one Trunk with the left branch of the Vena Portorum, so that the returning blood from the Intestines of the Fetus mixes with the returning blood from the Placenta; part of this mixed blood circulates thro' the Liver by the branch of the Vena Portorum, & part is carried into the Vena Cava Hepatica Sinistra by the Ductus Venosus, that runs between the Lobules hepatici, & left lobe of the Liver. This canal of communication the Ductus Venosus comes from the united Trunk of the Umbilical Vein, & left branch of the Vena Portorum, & opens into the Vena Cava Hepatica Sinistra just at the Trunk of the Vena Cava; besides these

The Fetus

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there peculiarities in the Arterial & Venal Systems. There is another
in the Heart itself, the Foramen Ovale, which is a passage from the right
into the left Atricle. It has a Valve upon it in the left side of the
Septum Atriculatum immediately below the projection called the
Tubercle, it closes up commonly after Birth, but in some Adults, it
is found open; thro' this passage the Blood passes from the right
Atricle into the left, & is prevented from returning by the Valve in
the left Atricle. The great difference in the Venal System of a
Fetus from that of an Adult is, that it has a circulation with a
Placenta, for the Placenta must be considered as a part of the body
of the Fetus. To begin at the Heart we trace the Umbilical Vein
to the Liver & so on to the Heart; The reason why it don't go directly
to the Ductus Venosus without uniting to the branch of the
Vena Portatum, & why it mixes the Blood first with that brought
from the Intestines, we don't know. In an Adult there seems to
be a necessity for that Blood, which is to nourish the body, to under-
go a previous change by circulating thro' the lungs, in the Fetus
it would be useless, for it can have no advantage from it. The
Branches of the Aorta distribute the Blood to all parts of the body,
& a considerable quantity is also carried to the Placenta by the
internal Ovar. Arteries: The Veins return the Blood to the Heart
mixed with a considerable quantity of fresh Blood from the Placenta
& by the Umbilical Vein, & by the Ductus Venosus to the Vena
Cava. Ingestio. we suppose that at least a third part of the
whole quantity of Blood brought to the right Atricle by the Vena
Cava, passes immediately thro' the Foramen Ovale into the left Atricle
& ventricle, & so into the Aorta again: the rest of the Blood will pass from
the right

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The Fetus

the right Ventricle into the Pulmonary Artery, & of this quantity probably one half passes thro' the Canalic Anterioris into the Aorta Descendens, so that not more than a third part of the whole quantity of the body circulates thro' the lungs to prepare the way to keep the passages open. The Blood which passes thro' the lungs is returned to the left auricle by the Pulmonary Veins as in the Adult. The Sixty Figures of the Fetus at different terms of Gestation have been greatly disputed about by different Writers. They certainly vary much in different Fatures. — A Fature of the size of an Horsebean has very little more than Head & Taunt, the head has two black spots which mark out the Eyes, the Taunt has four little nipples, which afterwards grow into Extremities, & the Navel string is thicker & shorter. Women generally miscarry in the 11th or 12th week after Conception reckoning from the last Menstruation. This is the time of more than 19 out of 20 miscarriages, & the Child is nearly always of the Horse-bean size: but then we sometimes find that Women miscarry at 6 or 7 weeks, & the Child is then of the Horse-bean size, and sometimes they miscarry at 11. or 12 weeks, & the Child is two or three months longer. The fact is this, when the conception is of the size of a Hen's Egg, the Fetus is of the size of a Horse-bean. It comes to this size about the 6th or 7th week, at this time it frequently dies, as it is obliged in the Blossom; the Woman having no bad Symptoms immediately arising goes on to the 11th or 12th week with the dead Fetus in her womb, & then the Symptoms of labour come on, & she miscarries. The Fetus therefore comes away of the Horse-bean size, & is in reality no more than 6 or 7 weeks old. There are instances of a Child of the Horse-bean size coming away,

The Foetus

away, so late as at Nine Months, tho' I had died at the end of the 6th week, & yet the Symptoms of Labour did not come on till the end of the 9th Month. If a Woman goes longer than the 11. or 12th week, she seldom miscarries. The fruit of her womb seems then to have become so strong as to be able to resist the blasting power, at the end of the 17th, or 18th week, the Child is two or three inches long: if it dies at this time the Labour comes on, then the Woman will miscarries at the end of the 12th week of a Child of this size, & this accounts for the other Variety at the usual time of miscarriage, i.e. about the 11. or 12th week; but generally speaking, all miscarriages happen about the end of the 11. or 12th week, as the Child is of the size of a Horse bean, or as others call it, of the large Bear's eye. When the Child is of the Bear size, the Bowels are all covered in, & are not seen, but Dr Hunter once saw a Foetus of the size of a large Fly very distinctly every way without a magnifying Glass, which the Mother was sure, was just four weeks old, it had no Head, Stomach, the belly lay close in contact with the Scutellines, & Vertebrae came out of the belly to form the Head, the Bowels were only covered by a transparent Membrane, thro' which they appeared, the spinal marrow was a distinct white Cord very plainly appearing thro' the Vertebrae.

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The Secundines &c

Lecture 93

So much for the Fetus, & now return to the Secundines. In the first months of Pregnancy there is a wonderfull distance between the Amnion & the Chorion, the jelly between them is in great quantity & keeps them divided. The ovum properly speaking is the Chorion & all its contents, the Decidua is plainly the inner surface of the Uterus, & always separates from the Uterus, & comes away along with the other membranes. In the miscarriage of 11 or 12 Weeks it is so much torn, that it ^{is} hardly cut distinctly even, it leaves the boundary reflected over it again, so that on one part the Fetus is covered with four membranes, the Amnion, the Chorion, the inner Lamella of the Decidua adhering to the outside of the Chorion, & the outer Lamella of the Decidua adhering to the inside of the Uterus all round. The first appearance in the Uterus after a woman has conceived is a slimy species of membrane covering the Fundus Uteri without any sensible adhesion, & at the same time the Fundus Uteri swells out into an efflorescence. These two parts unite from the Decidua, & between them lies the viscera & the Chorion with its contents. Dr Hunter once found the Decidua formed in the Uterus of a woman tho' the Conception had not passed out of the Fallopian Tube. The woman died from an internal flooding into the abdomen in consequence of the distended womb or Conception having burst thro' the Fallopian Tube into the Abdomen. When the Conception or ovum passes out of the Fallopian Tube, it is lodged between the two lamellæ of the Decidua, & fixes itself somewhere to the Uterus, by means of the outer part, as it increases it projects farther & farther.

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The Secundines &c.

Farther into the Cavity of the Uterus, till it fills up the Cavity, as it takes the thinner part along with it, for the Decidua Reflexa, which is continued over it so far as the edge of the Placenta at which part it is reflected from that which adheres to the whole inner surface of the Uterus, & that that, which adheres to the Chorion & envelopes the Conception by adhering to it, is the inner Lamella, or reflection of part of the Decidua, as that which adheres to all the inner surface of the Uterus, is the outer Lamella; as the Conception increases & brings the inner Lamella, more closely into Contact with the outer, they unite & become one Membrane; the outer Lamella of the Decidua, as it is originally forming, must consequently have three perforations in it, one for the mouth of the Uterus, & two for the Oifices of the Fallopian Tubes, because it is the inner surface of the Uterus to which these perforations are to be seen, in the Decidua of an early Abortion, while the two Lamelle have yet a Cavity between them from their not being united, & if the outside of the Membrane, which a Woman brings away from her Uterus, is covered with a shaggy Membrane, we may suppose, that it is the Conception covered by the Decidua or spongy Chorion, & that she has miscarried of a very early conception. The Father has a little bag at its travel, that contains a blood, which we shall call Vesicula Umbilicalis, as from this bag an artery & vein go into the Bowels of the Fetus, in a little time the Bag becomes a white Speck, & the artery & vein become a white Thread, but they soon after disappear, these have been supposed by some that have observed the Fall to be the Drachus

The Secundines &c

strakes & Alandois, which they doubt certainly are not so. The Chick in the Egg has a bag like this, which is carried into the Bowels of the Chick gradually till it is entirely taken in; the Bag is very Vascular and from it there goes a very considerable artery into the Bowels

Menstruation

The Menstrues generally appear at the age of Puberty, which is in this Country commonly at 15 or 16 years of Age, sometimes sooner, sometimes latter. The quantity is not to be ascertained, as it varies greatly even in the same Woman at different times, some Women don't lose more than 3 or 4 each time, while others will 8 or 9 or perhaps 12 or 14 yet enjoy very good health. Generally speaking a Woman loses about 3 or 4 at each Menstruation. It was a general opinion among the Antients that this Blood possessed a poisonous quality, as that when it was retained it poisoned the Constitution, that the Woman don't could not probably recover her health without this Evacuation was restored. But now it is universally believed, that this Blood is common healthfull Blood, as that the Effects ascribed to it by the Antients were purely Chimical. The Intention of it is the Effect to rid the Cause of ill health, for if a Woman recovers her health, she almost certainly has her now return. The Source of this Evacuation, every known was from the Uterus, but as they found that some Women had something of the kind in Pregnancy when the Mouth of the Uterus is closed, they were stagger'd & believed that it came partly from the Vagina. This Redundancy of blood may flow from any part of the

Menses

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of the body, but in general it comes from the arteries on the Fundus Uteri. The immediate cause of this Evacuation is most probably a fullness, tho' it cannot be determined by weighing the body. The way of accounting for it mechanically is very idle. It is said that the Uterus being the depending part, as the Veins not having valves there, they will give way to the pressure of the Blood, but a Woman would as certainly menstruate were she hung up by the heels, if she continued in good health. The Animal Functions cannot be explained upon mechanical principles. A Woman having organs capable of making more nourishment than is necessary for the support, & more being required to nourish the胎子 in Utero seems to be the final cause of this Evacuation. No other Animal has the Menses except a species of Monkey. The general Period is four Weeks, sometimes it happens a day or two sooner or later, & some Women know even the very hour it will come on. The time of the Menses leaving a Woman is from 45 to 50 Years of Age. The greatest Number of Women at 50 have no Menses, but in this as in other things there is great Variety. A Woman naturally & so may vary always is Obstinate, & when She is with Child, the Stories of Women having the full Menses all the time of Pregnancy are not true, there are & however then, as even a bleeding, but they are never like regular Menses.

Impregnation & Conception

Aristotle the first writer on Midwifery lived in the Cities of the Greek Empire, & was a very respectable Midwife for the age he lived in.
His Theory

Impregnation, & Conception.

His Theory of Generation was as follows. He say that the Male & Female Testicle both secrete seed, that the Male Semen is thrown into the Uterus at the time of Coition, & that the Female ovum passes into it at the same time from the Ovarium, unites with the Male Semen & they two make the Child. & that the Male Semen invades the Animal by a power inherent in itself, & that the Female Semen nourishes it till it arrives from Aristotle to Harvey, & his Predecessors agree. Fabricius ab Aquapendente only commented upon Aristotle, & Harvey seems to have gained his lights from Fabricius, but this he had great Oppo-
sitions of examining Deet at different periods after receiving the Book, he made out very little of Generation. He says that the first appearance of Conception is a Deet in that equal quantity of blood is derived to the Womb, and the inside of the Womb is covered with a Membrane, which afterwards makes the Uterus; he says that the Uterus has a power given it by the Creator to make the Child, perhaps as the Brain has a power of Thought, that it is not an inward power natural to the Uterus & called to action by Coition, but it is a power given to the Uterus at that particular time by the immedi-
ate hand of God Almighty. Steven Delgat then published the Doctrine of Man's being an Oviparous Animal, & that he is formed in an Ovum contained in the Ovarium. Mr John Hunter thinks that if any ovum comes from the Ovarium, it is very small, and imperceptible, and he thinks that the Male Semen is injected into the Uterus in Coition, & that a Fluid is thrown from the Ovarium at the same time into the Uterus to mix with it, for he kill'd a Bitch
instantaneously

Impregnation & Conception

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instantaneously in Section by running an Aole between the Vertebrae of the Duck, & the Dog being on his Backs, he opened the Bitch and saw the point of the Penis within the Orifice of the Uterus, & the Semen come from it, and the Ovarium had discharged a Fluid into the Uterus; & he likewise is of opinion that the Corpus Sustinum is glandular. Leisenhork believed that an Animalcule was thrown into the Mother by the Father, which grew up to a Fetus at a Fadpole grows up to a Frog.

MONSTERS

The Subject of Generation at present is not understood, and if we cannot account for the formation of a perfect Animal, we certainly cannot for Monsters. A very common Monster is a Child without a Brain, instead of it it has a bag of Water; another common one is a Child born with its bowels hanging out of its Abdomen; & so is the Child with a Double Lip, the double Child with Child with some supernumerary parts, as Six Fingers &c. It was the common opinion, that Monsters were the Effect of the Mother's Impregnation owing to her being frightened in her Pregnancy, as Marks were supposed to be caused by the longing for some particular things. But Dr. Belivers with Winckles, that all Monsters are originally so formed, that they are sweet wellformed Fict w^t first, they were then hurt, & grow up Monsters in consequence of that hurt, for the interiors are all calculated to the deformity. Dr. Hunter disputed a Calf with two heads, & found that the Vitta sent off branches properly to both heads.

Blooding - it sometimes

Flooding -

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It sometimes happens that the Placenta fixes itself volvo down, that it lies across the mouth of the Utens, so that when the Os Sinc. dilates for Birth the Placenta separates, & the Vipolls pour out a large gush of Blood. If the Fingers are introduced the Membranes are not to be felt, for it meets with nothing but Placenta. In this case the Membranes not being broken, the Woman will flood exces-
sively, and if she is not delivered quickly, will die of flooding. All we can do is to endeavour to deliver her as soon as possible, and run the hand thro' the Placenta, & break the Membranes to let out the Water. If she is delivered very soon there is a chance of her doing well; but commonly she is so much overpowered by the discharge that she sinks under it.

Retention of the Utens

Sometimes the fundus of the Utens turns down behind the bone between the Cervix Utens & Rectum, if pregnant as it increases it becomes fast locked, & pressing the neck of the Bladder against the Os Pubis it occasions Suppression of Urine; from this complaint, a young woman died, for there was no possibility of getting the fundus up again.

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The Fetus in Utero

Lecture 94th

There are two questions agitated with respect to the Fetus, First, whether there is a circulation of Blood between the Mother & Fetus, Secondly, how is the Fetus nourished? whether by the Gravel String, or by the Mouth, or both? In the first place the Vesicles of the Fetus are, not continuations of the Vesicles of the Mother, then is no passage of red blood from the one to the other, for injections will not pass from one to the other. It is nothing surprising, that the Fetus should make red blood of itself independent of the Mother, for the Chick in the incubated Egg has the power evidently without the Mother. It is most probable that the Juices which nourish the Child are carried from the Uterus by Absorbing Vesicles to the Fetus. In the second place it has been said that the Fetus in its early state is nourished by the Gravel String, & that afterwards when it comes to have a Mouth sufficiently formed, it is nourished by the Mouth, that is by swallowing the Digest Annies. It is most probable that it is nourished by thousands of Lymphatic Vesicles, which Absorb nourishment from the blood of the Mother, and carry it along the Gravel String. It is true we can't see any Lymphatics running upon the Gravel String, yet it is reasonable to conclude they do, in an Early State we cannot be nourished by the Mouth, its nourishment must be conveyed along the Gravel String. If then it is sufficiently nourished by the Gravel, why need it be changed for the Mouth? Beside the Digest Annies is not of a nutritious quality, it noway resembles the white of an Egg, for it is not coagulable by Heat, and Hunter has seen a Fetus whose Intestine a little below the Duodenum was impervious and divided.

The Fixtures in Utero

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and divided this, as the other end began at some distance from this. — Dr Cooper brought into the World a full grown Child without any Head, Heart, Lungs, or Intestines: and a Pint was sent to the Royal Society that was born without either Nose or Mouth, so that it is plain that the Fetus is nourished by means of the Amniotick Fluid, & not by the Mouth.

Diseases of WOMEN.

An Impurified Vagina is a natural & monstrous; it is sometimes not discovered till the time of the Young Woman's being out of order. The Blood of the first, second, or third Periods of Menstruation is retained within the Vagina & the Uterus, & makes a bag of fluid to be felt pushing down towards the Vulva; this must be let out by a small special opening made where the part is thinnest, & the opening must be kept open & dilated by a Sponge Tenter. Dr Hunter saw a Woman that had the sides of her Vagina grown together occasioned by Sore Rheum from a Pocket Caesarean, the Surgeon with a Trocar let out near a large wash-hand Basin of Blood the thickness of Gear, the Orifice afterwards closed & at the Month the accumulated Blood was again let out, inflammation from the distension came on & she died; if this opening had been enlarged the first time, it is probable it would have remained so, & the Woman have been saved. When the Vagina is too narrow, it must be dilated gradually by Sponge Tenters beginning with small ones & increasing their size by degrees. — Too short a Vagina is immediately the cause of the immediate influence of the Diseases, hence when a Woman is much affected in her Nerves, the Menstrues are likewise considerably affected & when a woman is ill, & the Diseases don't

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don't make their appearance, we are not apt to expect any good Effect from the exhibition of Emmenagogues, or Tonics, as they are called, nor is there any Medicine that has a Specific Tendency either to check or promote them & we are to regard the ill health without having any regard to the Menstrues, for there is no Medicine that has any Effect determined to them in particular, we must always manage the general complaints without considering the particular one of the Menstrues, & the moment that good health is established, the Menstrues will appear, or cease to be profuse, if they were so before, & if the Woman has no Troubles, or has too much, if her health is otherwise good, we should do nothing. It is the principal thing to study general health when the Menstrues are going off too, if they are irregular, we should do nothing, for it would be absurd to endeavour to keep them up further than the time which nature has set. The greatest part of the Diseases of Women, as the Cancer of the womb for instance, are apt to appear just after the natural time of the cessation of the Menstrues, so that they suppose the disease to arise from their ceasing too soon, here too we should do nothing with respect to the Menstrues, but treat the other Complaints alone. The Cancer of the Womb however, we can do nothing at all for. Some Women have exceeding painfull Menstruation, & fever with it, they will be much better if they keep themselves quiet & very warm, particularly their feet, & when the Menstrues are much affected a Dose of Mithridate should be taken at night: a quarter of a pint of common Tansy Tea hot in a Morning, & half a pint of an Evening is of considerable service, & is a warm Stomachic Bitter, & a little Utterine, if there is any such Medicine. Hysteria is, as Englished from Philostratus, The Worm disorder: the most common Symptom of it is a rising in the Throat,

Diseases of Women.

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Throat, in the Greeks thought that the womb was a distinct animal endowed with locomotion, & would rise up in the Pleure, & so as to press upon the Trachea, & almost choke the Patient, they thought this Animal disliked Stinks, and therefore they attempted to drive it down to its proper place by applying Stinks to the nose, such as Burnt feathers &c, and to invite it down they fumigated underneath the Petticoats with sweet smelling things. In Bearing down of the Utters they treated in a similar way, they applied Stinks below, & sweets above.

The Flux or Albus is not commonly to be considered as a Disease, for it seems to be natural in some degree to most Women & Women think that it is a heavy disease upon them, & that it drains away their strength, but they take the Effect for the Cause, their ill state of health is the cause of it not owing to the Flux or Albus. Such Women are generally Troubles, that is of an anxious mind & buried with trifles, the alteration of the Weather has a great Effect upon them, & when they are sick, the Drain is increased, so we must attend to their general health and when relaxed direct them to use the Cold Bath, Exercise, Dry Diet, Bark, & such like, & we should particularly insist upon cleanliness, for all internal Surfaces have their fluid increased from the Stimulus of what is received, stagnating on them, they should wash themselves thereabout with something astringent, as Red Port or Tincture of Roses, but as these stain the linen, it may be more agreeable to them to use an infusion of Green Tea Cold, which is sufficiently astringent, the Vagina should be washed with it by a Sponge fastened to the end of a Stick, rather than using a Syringe, or a little Alum may do by this means.

Diseases of Women.

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means the discharge will be readily diminished. In finding that the Cancer of the Uterus is preceded by the Silesor Albus, we should be author backward in using astringent Medicines to restrain the discharge, for if it is a natural discharge from the Constitution, they will be detrimental by closing up the Nervous.

There is a very common disease, the nature of which we are ignorant of, commonly attended with Silesor Albus, this sometimes without, it is an intolerable & sharp Itching about that part of the Vagina where, the Uterus is, sometimes about the external parts of Generation, most commonly without pain, but the Itching is most dreadful to be borne, when it is external, we direct Sulphur, Mercury, & washing the parts with Sappadis Lotion sometimes does good, & cooling things also are used, & often too without any good Effect at all. In two or three Cases, introducing a Bougie two or three times a day into the Uterus, & by that means keeping it upon the Stich for some little time has taken off the irritation & cured the complaint, in all Cases of this kind do well of themselves in time, they have never been known to bring on a Cancer, or any other great disease. The Vagina & Uterus being unit'd to the Bladder, there cannot be a Procedentia Uterus & pouvance of the Vagina, without the Bladder being drawn down too, & indeed it comes really out of the body, & makes a part of the Surm out of the Labia. To introduce a catheter, we must turn it just the contrary way from what we do in common. There are Tuberles often found in the Uterus, which are sometimes so numerous, & large, as to distort the Uterus considerably. We suppose them to be little glands in the fleshy substance of the Uterus enlarged & grown, & tuberous. They have no immediate tendency to Cancer, yet if they grow fast, they generally destroy the Patient by pressing the neighbouring parts.

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parts & bringing on ill health, & they generally happen to young Women: even if we put the hand on the belly immediately after Delivery, we sometimes feel such Tumors in the Utteres pretty distinctly, if the Woman should conceive these Tumors are grown large, the Utteres irritat'd is so much that she always miscarries

The Cancer of the Utteres is a very common disease. It is commonly proceed'd by bad Utterine parturition, irregular Menstruall Fluxes, & Pains &c. And during the time of Menstruation great quantities of blood (clotted blood) come away, the Strength fail with loss of appetite & the colour changes to what the Ancients called Atrophilous. The first stage may be call'd Scurvous, for the Utteres enlarges very much, & grows very hard, as it proceed's the Flux Albus grows very offensive, the Cancer ulcerates, & the discharge is intolerably offensive & oftentimes the Bladder & Rectum are eaten thru from the Vagina or Utteres, & the Disease increases untill Death affords welcome relief to the miserable Patient. For this disorder the Cicuta, as in other Cancers, would soon afford a little temporary ease, but never perfects a cure.

Polyptis of the Utteres are of different consistencies, hard & soft, no medicine will remove them, they sometimes will drop off of themselves, when they grow large, they bleed much, & so as to weaken the Woman & bring on Drapsey, & Death. If they are tied, the Draining of Blood ceases immediately, the Woman regains her strength, & gets well presently. If possible therefore they should be tied, & if no part of the Utteres or Vagina is inclos'd in the Ligature, as high up to the root as we can. Dr Hunter once tied one, & contrary to his expectations it gave the Woman pain at the time, & mortification came on the external & internal parts, & she died in a few days upon opening the body he found

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Diseases of WOMEN.

Found that a bit of the Uterus was tied instead of the Polypus, for the Polypus had dragged the Fundus Uteri down thro' the Tissues, which it had dilated by its bulk, so that it laid in the Vagina as the root of the Polypus. The tying the Uterus was what gave the pain, we should prepare for tying, then pull gently & if it gives any pain, must leave off, for probably we shall have included a part of the Uterus, or of the Vagina if it gives no pain we may venture to pull a little more & so on more & more, & if it gives no pain at all, we may tie it tight, & be assured that all is right. After it is tied it shrivels up forward of a quantity of juicy & droping off & when the Ligature comes away tho' the Polypus remains, we may be certain that it does not adhere to any part of the Uterus, & we may extract it how we can. Monsieur Liverett ties it with a piece of Wire, but a strong thread is better. The State of the Ovary of the Ovarium, is sometimes in one, & sometimes in a number of Cysts. Sometimes the Contents of these Cysts are jelly & the operation of cutting out the Ovarian Ovarium proposed by the French Surgeons is not practicable, for I don't advise, by a small Basis, but is applied to the great blooming parts.

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Pregnancy

Lecture 95th

The Woman whose Relations have had many Children, who is healthy & who menstruates regularly is most likely to bear Children, & therefore should be chosen by the Man who wishes to have Children. It is a common opinion that a Woman cannot be with Child till She has once menstruated either for the first time or since the delivery of a former Child, but this is a Mistake. A Woman who lives quietly & with her Affections confined to one Man is most likely to be with Child and to go her full time, and for this reason it seems to be, that the Wives of Clergymen have no many Children. The most certain sign of Pregnancy is obstructed bowels, and if little shews happen now & then for a Month after obstruction every day for instance, we may be pretty sure that She is with Child another sign is sickness at the Stomach, commonly in the Morning when She gets up; if she were to lie in bed all day she would not be sick in the least; these two are the chief Marks of Pregnancy. There are many others of less consequence; many Women become heated & dry & are costive. Many have heat-burn & Colicky Complaints, & many feel this Breast unusually filled, sometimes painfull. In the third, but especially in the fourth Month the heat becomes more plain, the obstruction of the bowels continues, the sickness is either gone off gradually, or is lessened, and the Ancola round the Nipple enlarges and changes to a darker colour: about this time they get thicker and increase in Bulk, as the Days open behind something warm should lie upon the Back, then to defend it from Cold. In common the Sickness does not come on till the end of the first Month & by this Month is gone. The motion within the belly as of the Child moved is very uncertain, it comes on generally

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generally however at 12, or 13 Weeks, increases as the Child grows stronger but some Women never feel it all. We cannot tell precisely whether a Woman is with Child or not by examining her, and even not then unless we are much experienced. It is more difficult to tell it in early Pregnancy, and we may be deceived by the substance of the Utens being changed into a Tumor, but generally speaking if a Woman is pregnant we shall feel the Utens about the Bristles softer & more open, than it is when unimpregnated. When she is not very big, we can generally move the turned Utens from side to side by our hands upon her Belly as it increases it becomes fixed. We should rather put off Examination as far as possible, that we may be enabled to determine more readily & certainly, without submitting the Woman to this disagreeable circumstance again. The Time of Parturition is, one may say, always the same, as always has been the same. The time of Labour is Nine. Calendat Months. The exact time of Conception is very uncertain, as it may happen on any day of the interval between the last day of the Woman's leaving, and the day they are married, &c. But the safest way is to reckon from the last day of Menstruation, for then the Woman will be prepared should it happen sooner. Dr Hunter thinks that a Woman may go a little more than 10 Months, but that no one can go farther. This however is nothing surprising, for Cows very often bear a fatigued Child at 9 Months, &c. Dr. Pembroke had a Mare which went 13 Months & sometimes a Child is born at 8 Months, and a Woman is more apt to come at 8 Months of her first Child, than afterwards. It was an opinion with Hippocrates that a 7 Months Child was more likely to live than an 8 Months Child, reasoning from the 10th Doctrine of the Numbers, but certainly it is the reverse & they hardly ever live when born at less than 8 Months. The general Management of a pregnant Woman is to let

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to let her live quietly as at another time, to avoid all fatigues, & this last should be observed in all Medicinal treatment for any complaint. If she gets too full & is heated, we should take away 3 or 4 ounces of blood, &c., little of any gentle Laxative should be taken for the usual contingencies which is apt to bring on the Piles, or a Woman may miscarry at any time in the 9 months, but generally does at 9 months. The miscarriage is always to be left to itself for the flooding will bring on fainting & the fainting will stop it. A woman likely to miscarry should be put upon the proper plans how to proceed. Immediately after the first leaving of the menses, we should attend to the general health; if relaxed give Bath, order the Cold Bath &c. The greatest number of miscarriages will be found to happen in relaxed & nervous habits, when the flooding is very violent, Vinegar & other Astringents are commonly applied to the Loin & Os Sacrum, & supposed to be of service, but it almost always stops of itself. The woman is generally left very much reduced, but she soon gains strength again, & whenever a woman seems to die from flooding she will be found to have died from some other weakness of Constitution unless in the latter months of Pregnancy. A common accident in Pregnancy is the retroversion of the Uterus, the Fundus turns down into the hollow of the Os Sacrum, & the neck of the Bladder being compressed thus is a stoppage of urine, which is sometimes fatal, & the forces are obstructed in consequence of the Rectum being pressed upon. If taken in time, the woman may be saved. We must draw off the urine, empty the Bowels by a Clyster, & then put the woman into such an attitude as to make the Shoulders depending, & the hips high, introduce a Finger into the Vagina & another into the Rectum, & endeavour to work up the Fundus by degrees, & if we are so lucky as to get it right again, the woman must be laid down carefully so that it may not go back again. The

Pretroversion of the Uterus

Woman should be kept quiet in bed for some time, if the case is very bad that we cannot get it up again, and draw off the Urine, & if the Woman is in danger of dying from the Suppuration, it might be perhaps adviseable to thrust a Specac into the Vagina into the Uterus to draw off the Liquor Amni, and produce miscarriage.

Labour

A natural Labour is generally best left to itself. A woman commonly falls into a Labour, when her Punctioning is up. The Pains do not begin on the Uterus, but in the Back, Hips, Thighs, & Region of the Uterus. They come and then go off again, & every succeeding time they act more at shorter intervals. There is a discharge from the Uterus, which is a mixture of Blood, & the loosened Jelly, that stopped up the Office. And when we see this discharge, there is hardly any doubt of the Woman being in Labour. The Membranes commonly do not break till the Pains have continued a considerable time, & just before the Child is born. Sometimes the Pains are such as to be Invection for the Child. If an opening of the Belly ensues, it is better, as it will make room for the Child to pass down, & indeed we should always give a glyster if she has not lately had a Stool. The time of Labour is very different, as to the first, or another Child, for the first Labour is more difficult and longer, especially in a Woman advanced in life, for then the parts are not so yielding. Commonly it does not last more than 12 hours, sometimes 24, & sometimes longer. And there seems to be something periodic in Labour, happening commonly at the distance of 12 or 24 hours after the first attack of the pains. If the Child lies right & every thing goes on well, the pains are the better, unless when the Child is going to be born.

It is

Labour

It is a bad method to use any Cordial in the time of Labour, we should only give something cooling, as a Basin of Watergut without Wine, or any other such Liqueur, for we must prevent heat & fevety, which will certainly do harme. And to hinder the Woman's growing uneasy on account of her being in pain, & not yet delivered, we must tell her, she is not in Labour, but that her pains are something like. For the quinding Pains do nothing, but when the facing pains come on the 3^o Since a dilatation, the parts stretch, & the Delivery is at hand, & then we may afwist we can further the Dilatation of the 3^o Since without Singing. If the Membranes are not broken, & there is no flooding, we should do nothing, if the Membranes have been broken for some time, & if there is a flooding, we should then examine to know the state of things, & how to expedite the Labour, for if any thing is unnatural, as the Child not presenting right, we have only occasion to turn it, & the sooner this is done the better, that is, before the Uterus is contracted, when we examine the Woman who will be in bed lying on her left side with her body bent, her knees bent, & her back turned towards us. In this posture we can more easily examine with the finger of our right hand, & examining from behind will give the Woman less offence than examining before, when we find that the Orifice of the Womb is sufficiently opened, and the Child ready to pass down, we should order the Woman to bed, for if she is put to bed sooner, she trembles the bed in her paines, and grows tired of it, and uneasy.

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Labour

Lecture 96

In a Natural Labour we should do nothing, but direct how it may be gone thro with Decency, & so that the Bed may be kept clean. The Waters & other Discharges must be kept soaked up from time to time with Cloths in. The Woman always complains of violent pain in her Back, & finds great relief from pressure with the hand at rubbing the Back, & this should be done w^t a finger or two. It may be introduced to keep the passage of the Child when it is coming down, by opening the fingers the lower parts may be opened, which will release a pain, & promote the birth. This thing may be done when there is any little difficulty of the Child coming thro the Vagina, otherwise we should rather seem to assist, than do any thing in reality. When the Child is going to be born, just when the Head is coming down, the upper leg should be kept from the Chest, & we should keep the Vines asunder by a large pillow rolled up tight, and placed between them to give room. We must endeavor to persuade the Woman not to bear down too forcibly for fear of the Child's Head tearing the Perineum, which is more likely to happen in the first Labour, & as the Head is coming out we should support the Perineum, & when the Head is delivered all the danger is over, but we would not choose to leave the Child so, & therefore we must assist the Pain by pulling gently, & passing the finger up to clear the Shoulders from the Elbows that is now contracting on the Neck. The Child naturally first comes down with its face directly backwards, then as it comes farther down it turns so that one Shoulder is directly backwards, which perhaps may lacerate the Perineum if we do not support it, or an elbow or a hand may do it by getting

by getting into an awkward situation, when the Child is born, we tie the Travail String, then stripe the string to get the blood up, & cut it off a little above the signature, & wrap the end next the Placenta in a Cloth, to keep the Bed clean, & the Child should be put into a Flannel sieve or we should now feel the Abdomen to know whether there is another Child or not, & at the same time we may pull down the flaccid Uterus, then we should tie in the Bed Cloths, so as to bind the Abdomen, which will assist in keeping off the faintness, that is apt to happen when the pulsus is taken off from the Abdomen, & it will help the contraction of the Uterus in some measure, & thereby the Expulsion of the Placenta, & if the Placenta dont come away readily we may assist it by pulling the String gently, & steadily, but the less we do the better provided all is well, if the Grounding pains a man, it is a sign that the Placenta will soon come away; if we pull at all we should pull downward so as to avoid the Sympathies of the Pubis; sometimes the Office of the Uterus is contracted & prevents its working down, here we may assist by delating the Office with the finger, by pulling very gently we can generally pull away the Placenta & the membranes uniformly & all may be brought away together, when all is over we should roll up the Sheets laid on the Bed to confine the wet & every thing else, draw them away, for if we draw them away without first rolling them up, we shall throw the Cloth of Blood onto the Bed, & then when all is taken away, warm Cloths must be applied below to intitle the discharge & keep the Bed dry, a very little Cordial should be given least the Woman should be inclined to heat, & feaver, for time of Labour a Woman is apt to vomit, but seldom

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seldom to purge, so that we should be constantly prepared, for the occasion is always sudden, some are apt to shiver, but this is of no consequence, Cramps are sometimes very perplexing but never do any mischief, If there is considerable fainting, then something a little cordial must be allowed, After Delivery the common accidents are Fainting & Bleeding, Fainting is not of much consequence unless it is occasioned by violent bleeding, the after pains are occasioned by the contraction of the Uterus, & after considerable after pain there is a large quantity of Blood clotted, for the Clotted Blood is thickly placed off from the ends of the divided arteries & veins, When the bleedings are in the natural way we should do nothing, but if they are very violent, we should give an opiate, The great bleedings used to be owing to the injudicious method of laying away the Placenta & Membranes, we can introduce the hand, and by getting on their outside, we may pull off the Membranes & Placenta, but this should not be done unless the violent bleeding makes it absolutely necessary, for the introduction of the hand so high up into the Belly even to the Scuticulus cordis, for the placid uterus flies before the hand, hurts the Woman exceedingly, & the arm does so much injury to the Bladder that she ever after finds the inconvenience of it, generally the Placenta will come away of itself in a few hours, sometimes it remains a day or two, sometimes a part only separates, & the case being sluggish there is danger from the bleeding, then we must get the Placenta away as soon as we can, If an hour after delivery there is no sign of its coming away, we should pass the hand up to forward its separation, In difficult labours, we are to do exactly as in the natural labour, only we must endeavour

endeavours especially to keep up the Spirits. They who have Severe Labours never have a Ease after it. If the Woman is advanced in life & the parts are so rigid that they do not stretch, if we shooe the mouth of the Utens up over the Childs head, it will come down into the Vagina very well. If the Childs head is large & if the Pelvis is narrow, the Bones of the Skull will naturally give way at the Sutures, & slip over each other, & thus the head will adapt itself in form to the Pelvis, & come down. If we were to attempt this however, the sudden Alteration which we, may easily produce will kill the Child, the gradual Natural Alteration next does any harm, so that we should wait with patience, & we shall be surprised to see what great things Nature will accomplish. The Natural & most common position is with the head downwards, & face backwards. If the head comes down with the face forward, some advise us to turn it to the Natural position, but it should be left to come as it is, & care should be taken to support the Quintain against the head, & see that the hind head will make as it comes down. If the head is bent backwards so that the face presents, it lies very badly, nevertheless it is better to let it come as it is, for whatever we do does considerable injury to the Mother, especially if we use Instruments, we should not endeavour to turn the Child as deliver by the feet, as is directed in this case. The best Rule is when the Head presents to let the head come as it will. Sometimes the Breast presents either with one or both feet downwards. If the feet come down, we must deliver by the feet, if the Breast alone presents, we must let it take its own way, & it is. It is best always when we can to avoid delivering by the feet, espec: if the head sh. happen to be a large one, for as the head will come out last, as theavel string comes into the World before it, it will be compressed by the head, & if the head sh. remain for some time in this position, it will compress the string so long against the sides of the Pelvis as to kill the Child by stopping the Circulation. & this seems to be a commencement of the Death of the new born. It is better to let the Child come down by the Breast, for the passage will be so

be so dilated by Nature as to let all pass readily & safely, as if we are obliged to deliver by the feet at any time, it is better to wait till the passage is sufficiently dilated of itself, before we attempt delivery at all. The other position, mentioned in Authors are probably without foundation, as when the Back or the Belly, or one side, or an Arm, or a Leg present, D'Heント says, he never saw one of these, if a hand lies on the head as it presents, we should push it up by carrying the arm round on the proper side close to the body, & in doing this we must take the opportunity of a Relaxation. Sometime the Travelling string comes down immediately upon the breaking of the waters, & so it is into the World before the Child. This is a dangerous case for the head as it comes down will compress the string & probably occasion Death. We must endeavour at the time of Relaxation to slip it up either with the fingers, or the handle of a Spoon &c, but this will be difficult on account of the slippings of the parts, for when we have got it almost up, it will draw down again perhaps. If we cannot get it up, we are obliged to turn the Child & deliver by the feet, but we should rather let it take its chance as it is, for if we turn it, the head will necessarily be the last to come out, & then the force used to draw it out will be sufficient to kill the Child independ: of the compression, more especially if the head be large or the Pelvis a narrow one. As the Traveller always runs some risk from turning the Child, for the Utter is injured by it, or perhaps ruptured, which last once happened to D'Heント. In such cases we must turn the Child, but it must be done with extreme great caution, & if a strong pain comes on we should lie by till the pain is over, & then proceed. D' Smulie directed it to be done by thrusting up the head in the time of a pain too, in quest of the feet, lay hold of them & draw 'em down. But in the time of a pain the Utter contracting & being pressed very forcibly by the Abdominal Muscles, we shall stand in chance of rupturing the Utter, especially if we use the same force that is commonly used on these occasions. Very little force need be, therefore should be used, we should gradually introduce the hand at the time of Relaxation, & if a pain comes on we should keep one ^{second} ground

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ground & lying, when the pain is gone off we may go higher & we proceed without any regard to the head or lower parts of the Child till we get pretty high up, then we must feel for the feet, & examine how they are situated with respect to the body, & get both if possible off a pair should come on we must be still about quiet hold; by gently pulling by the feet the other parts of the Child will follow round, & a very small degree of force will turn it. If the Flooding continues with Violence, for it is for flooding that the Child should be turned we must go on gently pulling in the direction of the Pelvis, & when the legs are pretty low down we must feel for the Arms & get them down by turning them forward & close upon the sides of the body. If it is the first Child, or if the Woman has a narrow Pelvis, so that we imagine she can't be delivered naturally in a very little time, we must deliver her by turning the Child gently, as well as pull down & when it is born we must attend to it immediately to see, if it is dead, & if there is any probability of recovering it tho' it has no pulse, we should use some Stimulus, a very warm cloth should be applied all over the Stomach, perhaps the Child may upon this give one Sob, & for want of some Stimulus to excite inspiration, it may not inspire again, we should therefore put a little Hartshorn upon the nose & Lips, so that it may be drawn in by the Sob, which will irritate the lungs & excite them to inspiration, and then the Child will recover, but if nothing of this kind is used, the Child hardly ever gives a second Sob, It is a common thing to blow into the mouth & so into the lungs, but it is always ineffectual. Every thing should be done gradually & softly in Midwifery, & if the Child's head should lodge on the Os Pubis, we must free it, & always take care to support the Scutenum against the pressure of the head, or any other part that presses it.

Labour

Lecture 97th

There are two Cases which are very alarming, viz. Flooding & Convulsions.
Flooding is commonly owing to a Separation of the Placenta & Membranes from the Uterus, & therefore a Woman often gets out in Labour with a pretty smart flooding, which however abates. We should keep her cool, that the flooding may not be encouraged, the Labour pains will generally come on in a little time, & delivery soon follows. If the Placenta grows over the mouth of the Uterus, the Case is the worse, because the pressure from above, cannot dilate the Orifice, but as the Orifice grows, loose, the Placenta separates there, & the divided Wombs will afford a plentiful flooding which must continue until the Woman is delivered, & the Uterus has soon to contract to stop it. & as the Placenta hinders the pressure from dilating the Orifice, of course it prevents delivery. In this Case, we must thrust our hand thro' the Mass of Placenta & break the Membranes so that the Child may be born, if there is a Relaxation of the Orifice of the Uterus. If the Woman has sufficient strength to set up the pains & exclude the Child of her self, we may do nothing further, but if she is too low from the flooding, we must deliver her without delay, for until she is delivered the flooding will not stop, & generally speaking, after we have delivered her, she will die from the great loss of Blood, which must surely follow. Convulsions are very dreadful, sometimes they happen in pregnancy, & sometimes in Labour. In the first fit, there commonly happens a little something to the Brain, so that she does not recover her senses perfectly sometimes for a day or two. There is a succession of fits, & they leave the Senses worse every time. After entirely ceasing they often leave the

Labour

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The disturbance in the senses for a month or the Woman may die
of the fits without ever being in Labour. This complaint not only
happens to Women who have had fits before in their lifetime, but
to those also who never have, so that it seems to be owing to a Cause
connected with breeding, and appears to arise from some irritation
upon the Nervous System. In Labours it is a common thing to say,
that these fits are the Death of the Child, but this is without foundation
for we see living Children born as often after them as when there
have been none. In general in these fits the Face becomes very
full of blood, and then there seems to be a Great Distortion of it to
the Head, yet upon examining the Brain after Death it always appears
perfectly sound & in a natural state. They happen to Women who
are full, & not to those who are empty, but it is right to take away
a pretty considerable quantity of Blood if the Woman can bear it, lest
fullness should occasion it, and this perhaps may prevent another
an opiate too seems to have some effect in moderating them. Somt.
times they are preceded by a small headache or pain shooting from the
pit of the Stomach thro' the back, at other times there is no warning at
all. When the Labour comes on in these cases we should endeavour to
break the Water to prevent the Distension of the Utters from producing
Irritation upon the Nerves, which possibly it might do so as to increase
the Tendency to these fits. When she is delivered, the Case must be
left to Nature, and generally speaking there is never a return after
Delivery; but we may give an opiate to quiet her a little. There
hardly ever happens a case in which the Forceps are of service. They
must therefore

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must never be used till the Child's Head is got down into the Cavity of the Pelvis, for we never should attempt to get them up into the Utters, as some do, we can only ease them when the Child's Head presents, and they use the use of hands, when we cannot get our hands on the side of the head, we should pull with them at the time of a Pain, & all then they should not be claved upon the Head, we must be exceedingly cautious in using them, otherwise they will hurt the head, and the Mother, so much as to endanger both in a Case favourable for the Forceps is a painfull long Labour, & the Head remain but little to be done, yet the Woman is too weak & low to do it, now we can finish it easily & expeditiously by drawing the head gently down, if the Woman is already very weak from flooding, which is continuing still tho' the head is very low down, we must have recourse to this Operation, we must introduce first one blade, when there is room & work it over the Ear, & Temp if we can't get it over the Ear, & then do the same with the other blade, then when a pain comes on, we must pull gently, for the pain will act in concert with our effort, to bring the head down, when we have got the head pretty low, if there is strength left to produce sufficient pain, we should let the Child into the World, we must pull to the last, but in this as in every other Case we must take care to avoid a separation of the Placenta, & therefore we should pull the head forward from the Placenta, it is sometimes necessary to open the Child's head, and deliver by the Crotchet, we should never have recourse to this, unless when we see, that the Mother will die in all human probability, as well as the Child, provided we do

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We do not have her at the expence of the Child, for the Pelvis is sometimes so narrow, or the head so very large, that it is impossible, that it should come down into the cavity of the Pelvis. It should never be done, but as the result of a consultation, for we might thus fatigue our wife, determine upon it, when the Child is not so dangerous, but that the Child may be born alive, if we wait with patience. The best way of opening the head, is to do it with the proper Scissors, if possible by thrusting them into a Suture, after having made a sufficient opening by turning them round & opening them a little, we must introduce the hook of the Crochet & turn it round & round within the skull to break the Brain all over, by catching the Pia Mater we can draw it out with the hook, & a great part of the Brain along with it. All this should be done with caution, the Fingers should be just put up to feel the situation of the head & Sutures, & to guide the point of the Scissors, we should open the Scissors so that none of the sutures may get between the blades. The head being emptied as it were of its contents, the pains will in five or six hours have the bones over one another, so that the head will have its bulk diminished & descend: Old women may fix the hook of the Crochet on the inside of the bone, & with the fingers of the other hand opposite to it on the other side of the bone pull gently to bring the head down, for the hook generally comes on thro' the bone & sometimes tears quite out, so that the fingers will be usefull to prevent its hurting the uterus. When there are twins, they commonly come, one with the head presenting, the other with the feet & back, after one is

Labour

One is born, if no second pains come on of the preceding kind in an hour or two, we should break the water, & then the Child will come away. A Dead Child is born in the same manner as a living one, & requires no difference in practice. We should not think of doing any thing because we are sure of doing no mischief to the Child, for what we do, does dangerous to the Mother. The most dreadful case of all is the Exposure of the Uterus. It is an accident that sometimes happens of itself, & sometimes from the acts used in Delivery; but it signifies nothing what we do, for the Woman must die. The Child can only be taken out of the Abdomen either by the hand introduced into the Uterus, or thrust thro' the Sacrum into the Abdomen, or by cutting it out of the Abdomen. But do it which way we will, we shall find all circulation to have ceased thro' the Gravid Uterus & the Child dead. It is better therefore to leave the case to itself, until God pleases to relieve the Woman. In Labour it shall happen that all of a sudden in a violent pain the Woman shall feel something give way, and upon examination, we can't find any Child in the Uterus, but upon applying the hand around, we feel a sac ation, & this that we feel the Placenta, & perhaps the Child. This accident once happened to Dr Hunter, while he was turning the Child, & suddenly & right away from him thro' the decilated Uterus, & got out of reach. When the Placenta does not come away immediately, we should never use much force for fear of pulling the fundus Uteri down, & inverting it. This inversion will sometimes happen naturally, for the Masses of Placenta may be thrust down by the efforts, instead of separating from, will bring down the Fundus along with it. In both cases there will be a large Mass for

Turnout

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Turned out at the Vulva, the lower part made by the Placenta, and the upper part by the Fundes, w^{ch} we must separate the Placenta, and membranes off from the Uterus, and carry the Fundes up with the hand so high as to place it in its natural situation lest any part of it should remain inverted. It should always be done as soon as possibly, for when the Uterus is contracted, and got thick & hard, it will be more difficult if not quite impracticable when the Fundes remain inverted, it commonly kills the Woman, in the Space of a few months, or a year, there is such a continual, draining of blood from the inverted part —

The Case of an Extra Uterine Tumor cannot be avoided, it must always be left to itself, if an Abscess should form to the Bones come away, we would naturally dilate the opening to make way, for the discharge of the test, — The Woman who has one of these dead Extra Uterine Tumors within her may breed again in the Mean time —

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Treatment after Birth

Section 98

of the Mother

We should watch her very carefully, & if she is well at the end of five days, she runs but little risk. Generally speaking the after-pains come on soon after Birth, but they seldom come on at all after the first Child. They seem to be the effect of the contraction of the uterus to drive off the coagulated Blood. We should do nothing for them, except indeed when they are very violent, we may give an opiate. Laceration of the Uterus is of no consequence unless the Peritonum is torn, for if that is torn there is always an incontinence of Urines remaining. Itches in this case are of no service, as they never hold, for lacerated flesh will always suppurate, so that do what we will, the lacerated areas will be always laid into. The supravaginal of the Bladder never heals up, but remains open into the Vagina, which is continually irritated by the constant dribbling of the Urine thro' the opening. The Bladder will suppurate from time to time, & will remain fistulous. If there is any Gravel in the Bladder, the Child in passing down will bring the Bladder against it by pressing them against the Os Pubis, so that it will suppurate, and become fistulous by this means. For this case likewise we can do no service. The great thing of all indeed is that of the Accidents of Labour is the Child bed-tears. It commonly comes on before the time of the coming on of theトルト, & when it is attended with excruciating pains in the Bladder & ditches it is very dangerous. It does not happen from the Delivery, for those that have never labours never have it. The woman must be kept warm, & the body kept open, & in 24 hours it will generally go off of itself. anything else that we can do will be of

Treatment after Labour of the Mother

be of no Service; The Belly of Breast is well & the Swelling will go away of itself. It is not the Nature of the Fever, but the State of the Constitution that can't beat fevers at this time which kills women are liable to Hemiplegia at this time, but it is not owing to the Milk falling on particular parts as has been considered. Some are attack'd with Inflammation & swelling of the Thigh & Legs also well with Bleeding & an Antiphlegis tic regimen. If other Complaints happen at this time, they must be treated as in common, as for instance, if there is an Ague, we must give Bark

Of the Child

We should attend to the first Stools & Urine, & if none come owing to Imparation, we must make a purgative. If there is no but going down into the Pelvis, the Case is irretrievable, & Death will soon ensue, for we can do nothing. A few hours after Birth, a Child's Head is apt to swell up into a Tumor. It is an extravasation of Blood, but it never should be opened, for it always goes away of itself. The Reason is that a Child is liable to require nothing to be done, for it. The little Breasts of the Child are apt to inflame & swell, but they never suppurate, they always get well of themselves or with a little poultice, & when getting well, a thick white substance may be squeezed out of the nipples. The Pidgum requires nothing, nor does the Thrush more than keeping the mouth clean, for if we take it off it grows again, but it will of itself gradually get well, & when it is going away there come little eruptions about the Arms, which Nurses call the Thrush going thro' the body. Children are very

of the Child

are very liable to Sore Eyes, but this requires nothing than keeping them washed clean - If it arises from the Mother having a Gonorrhœa then Mercurials must be given & Grapes & Figs require hardly any thing, but Rhubarb or Magnesia to keep the prima Via clear - It is a good way to insulate the Child at the Breast while it is very young before the time of Teething - At the time of Teething it should not be vented on - The Scabby Skin is a Symptom of the Teething, & leaves the Child gradually as it grows up - It is best to bring the Child up by the Breast, & the Woman that suckles it should not, if we can choose, menstruate while she gives Suck - The Ricketts are to be treated by Cold Bathing - The Method of managing the Club Foot is to roll it in its proper position when there are a number of Swines of the Intestines out in the Navel String, they cannot be aduertised by an Operation similar to that of the Strangulated Hernia, for they adhere to the inside of the skin - Sometimes the Placenta degenerates into a Mass of Hydatids, but we now & then see Hydatids come away when a Woman has never conceived

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On Embalming

Lecture 99th

Being Supplement to 81st Lecture

after the Death of an Animal the body soon becomes putrid, and is in time totally dissolved by Putrefaction. It has been said that the Egyptians when they embalm dead bodies, pull out the Brain thro' the Nose with a Hook, but this seems too absurd as a Mummy brought from abroad, and lately carried to the Museum at Cambridge, which the Dr. saw, appeared much as if it had been exposed in the Wind in Cold Weather next to the Freezing point. In Lydia they prepare them by burying them in the Hot Sand, of which the Dr. of tho' he never has intended to try by keeping a Lamb in Warm'd Sand. From the Description of an Egyptian Mummy belonging to the Royal Society it appeared before Dr. Hunter, his Brother others, not to be an human body; it is true, there were the Bones, but they were covered with Linen sift in Sand, which by Comparison was made in Shape like an human body, & it was evident there was not any muscular flesh. To Embalm a body properly, you must first get rid of the

On Embalming.

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of the animal juices, and when the flesh is dry, it must be impregnated with something that will resist putrefaction. You should always take care, when you intend to embalm a body, to have the following things ready, Viz. Ol. Soubirth. Dray Soubirth Wine $\frac{3}{4}$ on Dray Vermillion $\frac{3}{4}$ Spt. Dr. in Red Camph. Dray or more Rosein Dr. Rose Dr. Camphor Dray, Thyme thulard & should be powdered, Ministr. Ol. Horimain Dr. N. Chamam Dr. Ol. Lavend Dray, and Paris Plaster about Dray, a Box of which weighing the avots. 1.6. as soon after the Body is dead, as it is decent, or as soon as you can prevail on the Friends, is the time for Embalming, & always before, Putrefaction begins, every Subject that is capable of recovery, after pronouncing Mr. Hunter thinks, have their Limbs flexable, & that as Rigidity is a certain sign of Death, you ought always to wait for that to begin, you should lieut down to the Inguinal artery and draw between the Anterior Superior part of the spine of the Os Ilium & the Symphysis of the Os Pubis, and inject into it Ol. Soubirth with Soubirth Wine & Vermillion first squering

On Embalming,

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squeezing out a little of the Blood) and keep continually
expiring till you have filled the body, or till it be all
over of a reddish hue. Having thus assisted putrefaction
you should let it remain twelve hours or more, after
which you are to open the body in the usual manner &
take out all the viscera of the Thorax & Abdomen & cut thro
the Aorta, the Vena Cava, or the two Subclavians & the
Trachea, but leave the Extremity of the Aorta at any rate
& the Extremity of the Ileus. Make an Aperture in the
small Intestines about the Iijunum & squeeze out the
Contents of the Stomach, Duodenum, & into it & tie up
the Trachea. Squeeze all the different viscera well & dry
them with dry Cloths & empty the Bladder & Rectum, and
take out the Kidneys, you should employ a full
hour in getting out the Blood & moisture from the
body by stroking it beginning at the head & going to the
extremities, as the Brain will be well defended from it
you may leave that in. Then inject the descending Aorta
tying up the Descending Aorta & also tie up the two Iliam
illary Arteries & inject with the first Syringe of Ten pounds
& after that strong Spirit of Wine & Camphor; this being
done inject of Descending Aorta tying the Epigastric Arteries
first

On Embalming

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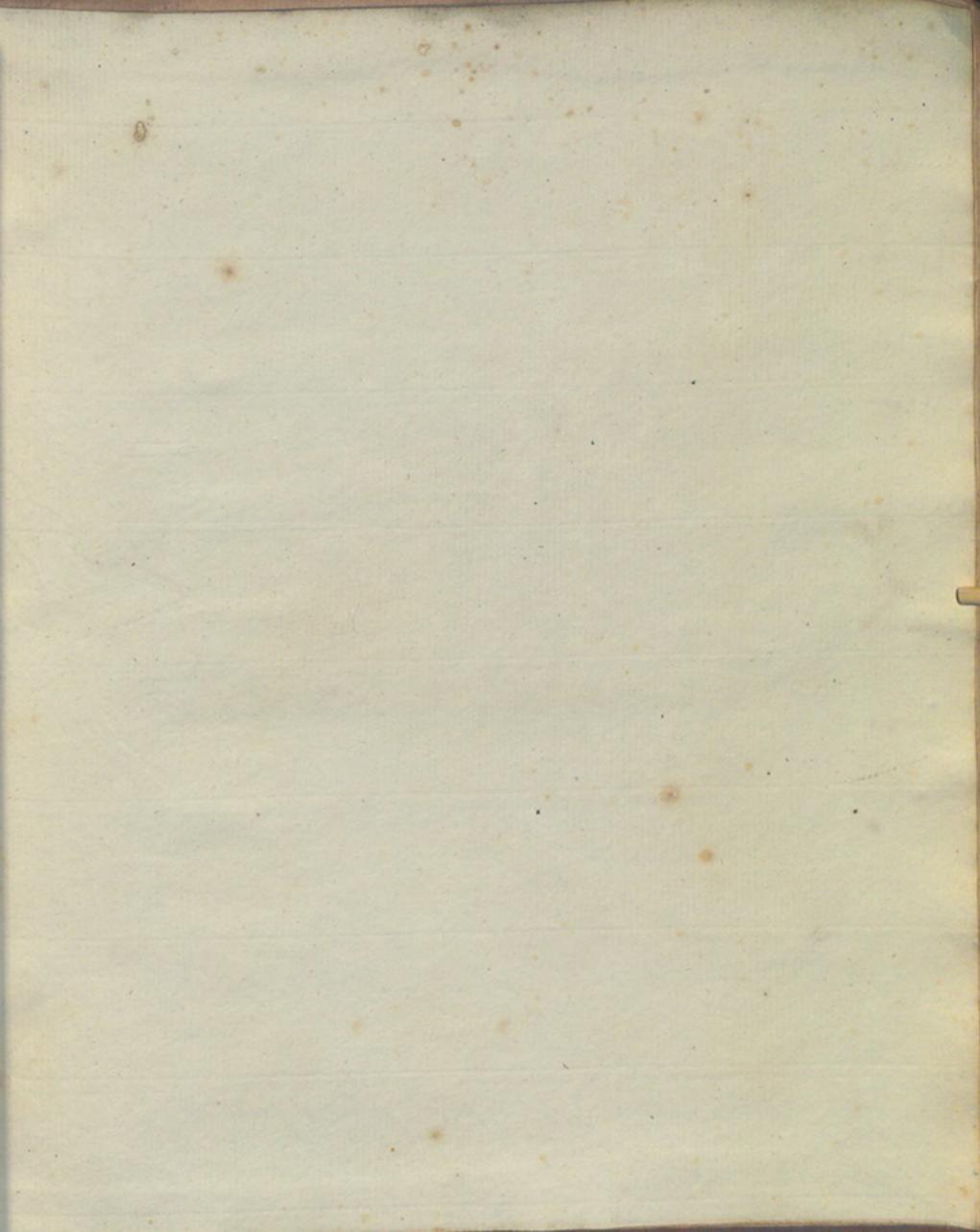
First with St. John's wort & 1/2 pt of wine & Camphor
then inject the Heart, Lungs, & rest of the viscera with St.
John's wort & 1/2 pt of wine & Camphor. Put a pipe into the
Superior Innominate artery & tie the inferior one anteriorly
Calliae & by injecting as before you fill the viscera of the
abdomen. The kidneys are to be injected by the emulgents &
aromatic Herbs in the body are of no service, as Dr Hunter
thinks. Vegetable Substances do not give & putrefaction. The
cavities are to be stopp'd with the Powder, viz. Rosin, & extract
Camphor, as the Intestines with water & wine to putrefaction.
You are to draw some of the Powder into the Trunks then
put a stratum of viscera & so on, continually putting the
Powder between every part. Having thus nearly fill'd
the body, you are to sew it up neatly, beginning at the
rectum, when you come to the trachea pour in a Bottle of
pt of wine & Camphor upon the Powder & after that to put in
some spiritual oil, then more Powder & sew the body completely
up. Rub & mouth & nose with sponge wet in St John's
wort & 1/2 pt of wine & Camphor, & pour some down the trachea
& oesophagus, & then stuff up the mouth & nose with Powder
& afterwards put in some spiritual oil; then do the ears in the
same manner. Take out the humours of the eye by cutting
in at the upper part of the eye & then squeezing out the
humours.

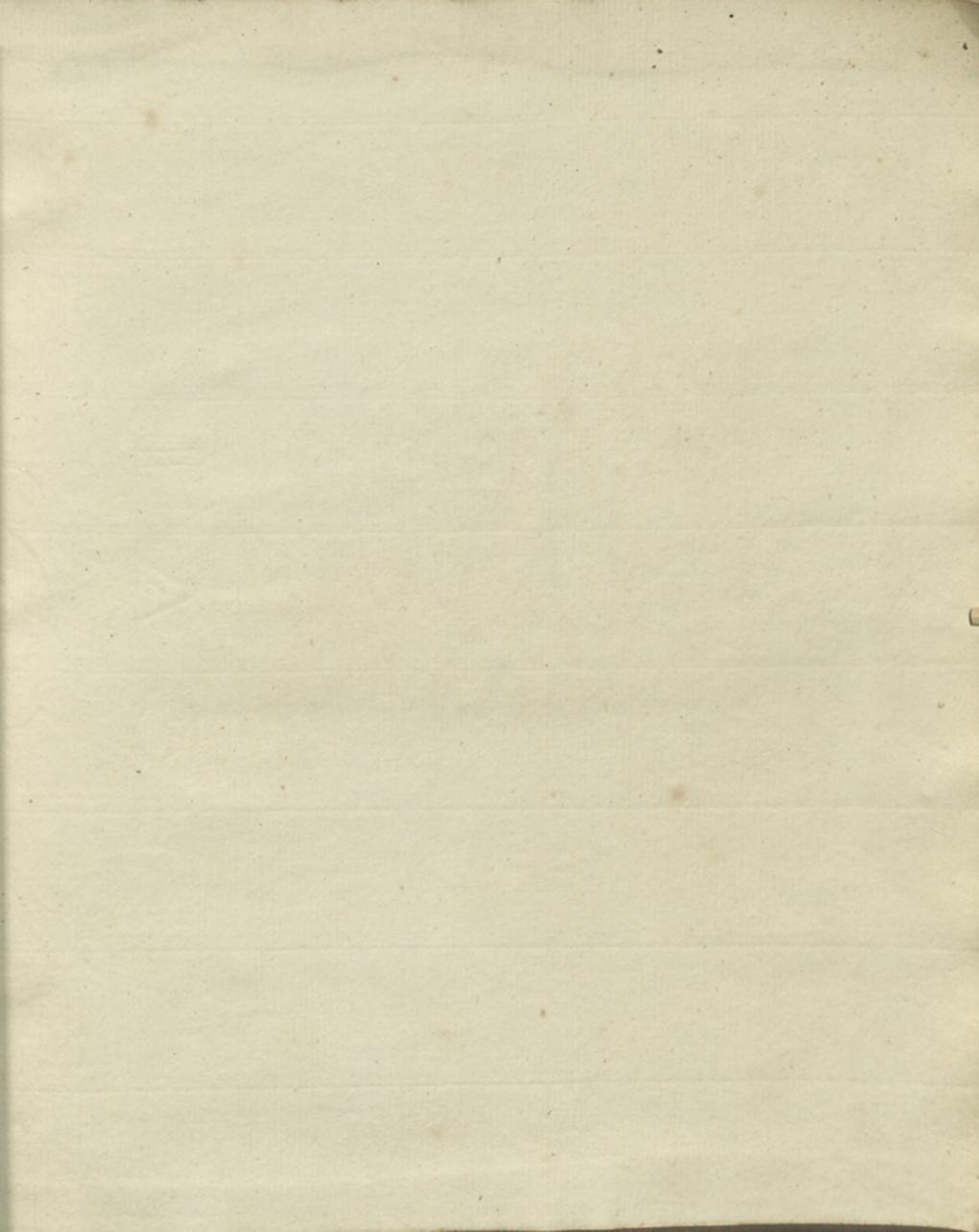
On Embalming,

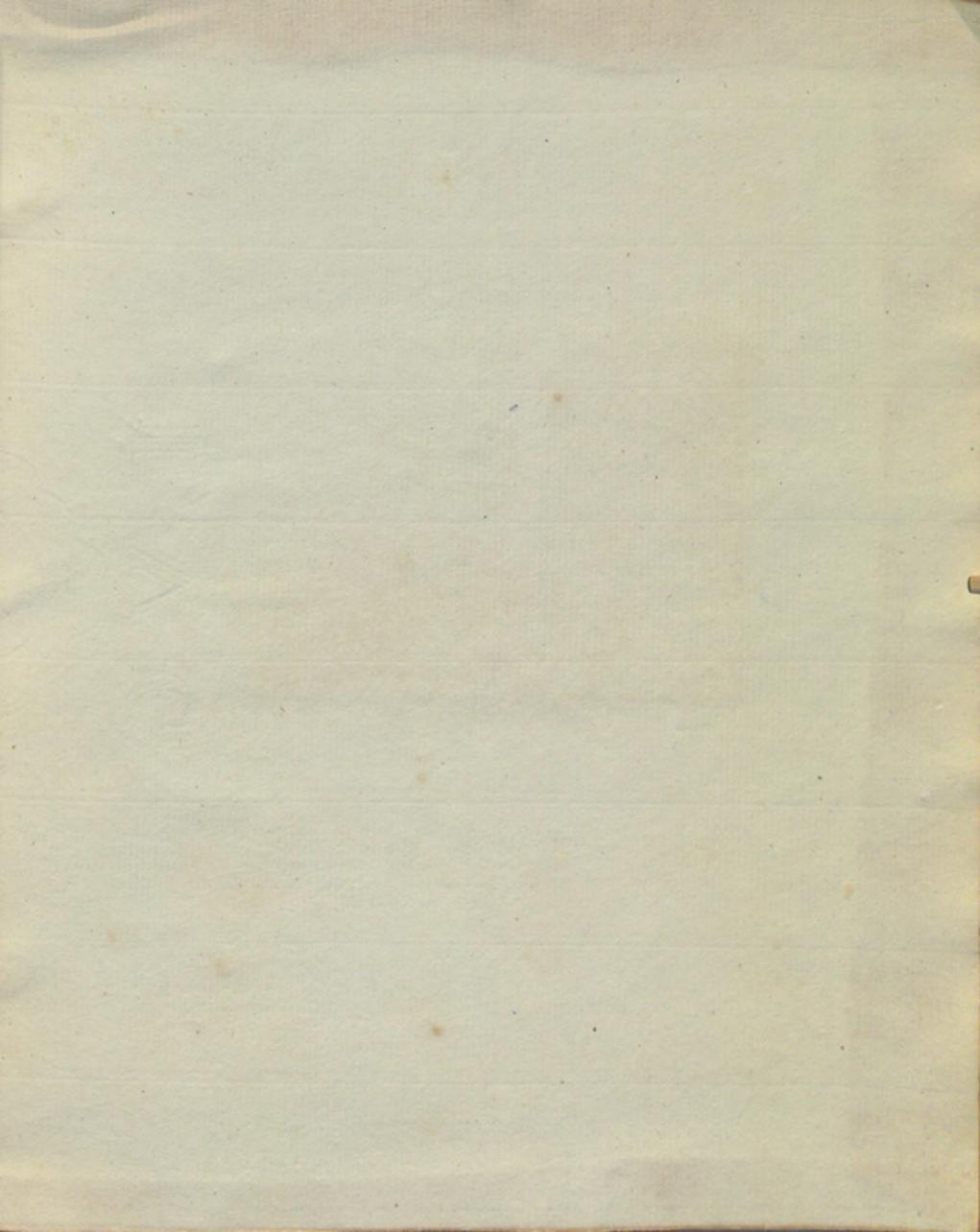
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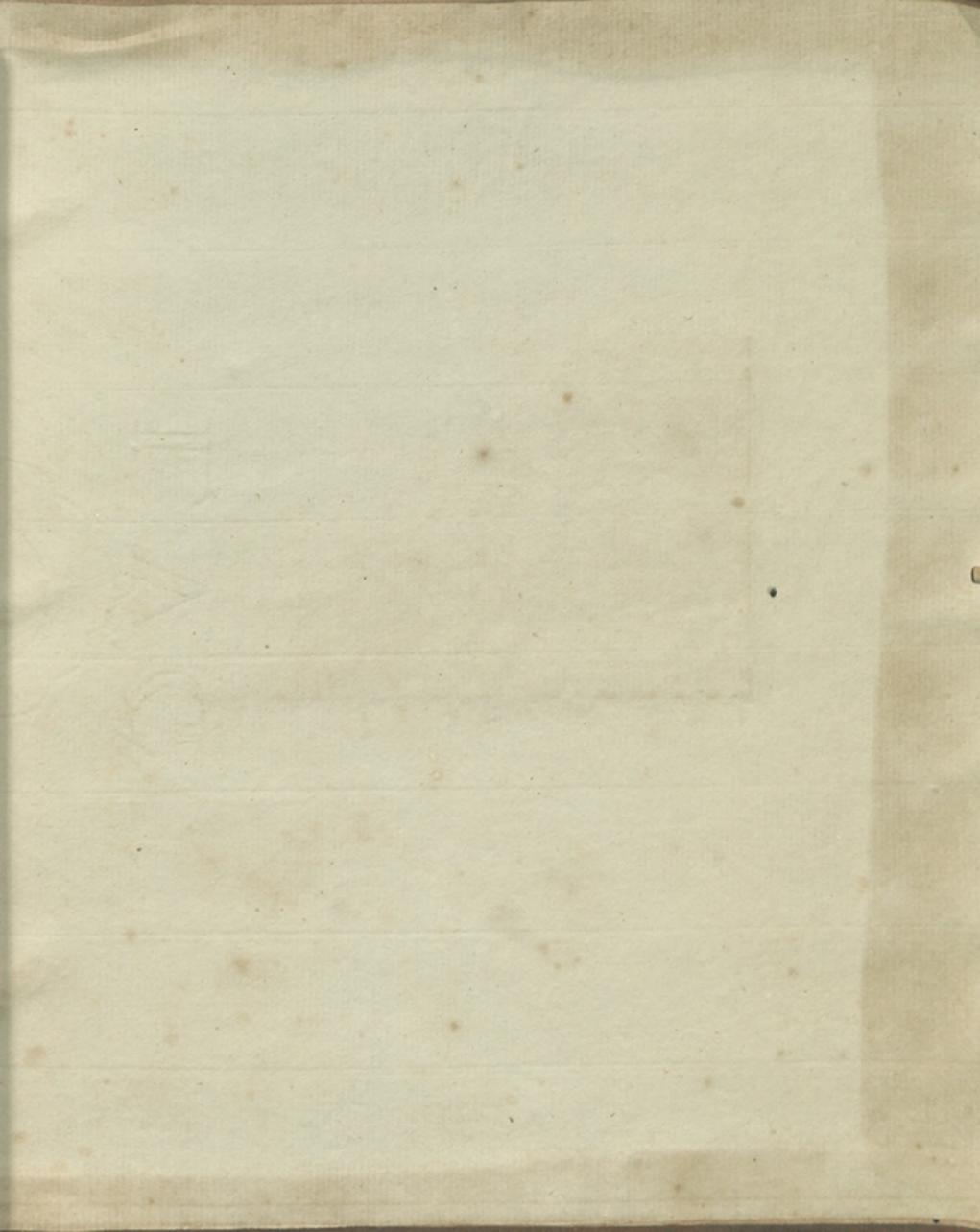
humours, fill the Ball, with Powder, & then put in some
Spirituall Oyl. Then lay the body on a dry Table, & make
A very cleane & dry on the outside & rubb it over well with
Apt. of wine & Camphor & afterwards with Spirituall Oyl. Make a Bed
of Rush bated, wld dry in Paris Plaister in a Box or Coffin & put
the Body in it. Then add Paris Plaister sufficient to half
cover the body, you should take care to keep out the
external Air, & have a glass over it, that you may see how
it goes on. Many small Bottles of Spirituall Oyl are to be
stuck in the Paris Plaister. The expence of the above mentioned
Process besides 100⁰ sc is about 10, or 12, which is exactly
the Manner in which Mrs Vanbuckell was Embalmed
Jan. 15. 1775, whose body kept moist except just the
face, for many months, but is now perfectly dry & free
from any tendency to Putrefaction, in which state it stands
doubtless, but she may remain for 500 Years. —
Mrs Vanbuckell lies in a making a glass case, & has
been seen by a great number of People. — — —

Finis











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